

The University of Chicago

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION
IN ARGENTINA, CHILE, AND
URUGUAY

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY
OF THE DIVISION OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN
CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
SEPTEMBER, 1943

By
CHARLES HENRY SCHUTTER

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

1943

The University of Chicago

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION
IN ARGENTINA, CHILE, AND
URUGUAY

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY
OF THE DIVISION OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN
CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
SEPTEMBER, 1943

By
CHARLES HENRY SCHUTTER

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

1943

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer is indebted to Dr. N. B. Henry, Dr. Newton Edwards, Dr. W. C. Reavis, and Dr. J. Fred Rippey, of the University of Chicago, for valuable advice and counsel in the preparation of this dissertation. Their suggestions were very helpful in the organization of the material and the presentation of the data.

The Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union supplied important information concerning education in Latin America. Other agencies and individuals contributed in pointing out sources of special value for this study, and to all of them the author gives thanks and appreciation.

C. H. S.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	Page iv
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	v
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. THE HISTORICAL AND CULTURAL BACKGROUND	4
III. EDUCATION DURING THE COLONIAL PERIOD	14
IV. FOREIGN INFLUENCES	38
V. SOCIAL FORCES AFFECTING THE GROWTH OF EDUCATION	50
VI. THE DEVELOPMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS	64
VII. SCHOOL LEGISLATION	78
VIII. SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION	94
Argentina	
Chile	
Uruguay	
IX. THE FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION	114
X. THE GROWTH IN SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS	134
XI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	153
BIBLIOGRAPHY	160

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Percentages of Total Expenditures of Argentine National Government Devoted to Primary, Secondary, and Normal Education, 1865 - 1914	121
2. Expenditures for Education in Argentina by the National Government	123
3. Expenditures for Education in Chile	126
4. National Expenditures for Primary Education in Uruguay	128
5. Expenditures for Education in Uruguay	129
6. Percentage of National Budget Spent on Education in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay	132
7. Enrollments of Boys and Girls in Primary Schools of Argentina	135
8. School Enrollments in Argentina	136
9. Ratios of Enrollments in National, Provincial, and Private Primary Schools in Argentina, (Excluding the Capital)	137
10. Enrollments at the University of Buenos Aires	138
11. Primary School Enrollments in Chile	139
12. Enrollments in Public Primary, Secondary, and Higher Schools in Chile	141
13. Attendance in the First and Sixth Years of the Primary Schools in Chile	142
14. Attendance in the First and Sixth Years of the Secondary Schools in Chile	143
15. Public School Enrollments in Uruguay	145
16. Private Primary School Enrollments in Uruguay	147
17. Ages of Students in Primary Schools of Uruguay, 1934	147
18. Percentage of Total Population of the Nation Enrolled in Primary Schools - Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay	148

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure	Page
1. Principal Features of the Argentine Educational System	101
2. Principal Features of the Chilean Educational System	108
3. Principal Features of the Uruguayan Educational System	113

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the study. - The present time is very propitious for a study of the education and culture of Latin America because it is desirable to have a better understanding between our neighbors and ourselves than we have ever had before. Complete economic, political, and intellectual cooperation requires sound foundations. In order to secure this cooperation and the friendship of the Latin American nations, we must understand and appreciate their institutions and culture. This requires a study of their racial, religious, and educational backgrounds. It is with these facts in mind that the writer has attempted to investigate and describe some of the important elements and events in the educational progress of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay - all of which have made important advances in this field. Only minor attention has thus far been given to the educational development of those countries in the writings of North American scholars, so that the present project should help to fulfill a need, which, after being neglected for a long time, has become urgent in recent years.

Sources of data. - Copies of original documents and governmental publications have been examined to the extent that such materials are available. Standard works in history, authentic reference books and manuals, and the writings of outstanding scholars have been utilized as supplementary aids. Most of these sources were in the Spanish language, and all translations into English have been carefully made.

Most of the materials were obtained from the libraries of the University of Chicago. Others were obtained from the John Crerar Library and the Newberry Library of Chicago, Illinois, and from the Library of Congress, Washington, D. C. Miscellaneous materials were secured from the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

Plan of the study. - Ten topics form the basis of this study. The first, dealing with the historical and cultural background, reveals the important characteristics of the native peoples who lived in the regions comprising present-day Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay. It also describes the mingling of races and social characteristics which resulted from Spanish conquest and exploration, thus giving an insight into the biological and cultural foundations of the people living in those nations.

The second topic gives an account of education during the Spanish Colonial Period, which lasted until the decade between 1810 and 1820, at which time these countries won their independence. The almost complete control of education by the Catholic Church, and the close cooperation between Church and State, is emphasized.

In the third topic, the influence of foreign countries on the education and culture of these nations is analyzed, special attention being given to the adoption of ideas and practices similar to those prevailing in the United States, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain.

The political, social, and economic forces which stimulated and directed the development of education are discussed in the fourth topic. Attention is given to arguments supporting public education which were based on the belief that education would increase national wealth and power, and would promote political

and social stability. Recognition is given to difficulties encountered in promoting education, such as wars, revolutions, and social turmoil.

The fifth topic is devoted to the establishment of normal schools, which were of prime necessity in training teachers for the numerous new schools planned by the national and local governments in these nations.

In the sixth topic there is a discussion of the most important school legislation in these nations.

The seventh topic deals with the administration of the schools, the division of authority between national and local government officials, and the general structure of the school system in each of the three countries.

School finances are discussed in the eighth topic. Sources of school revenue, national funds given in support of education, and total national expenditures for education are analyzed.

The ninth topic provides statistics on school attendance in these countries, showing the number of pupils in public and private institutions, and relating school attendance to the total adult population. It provides objective data from which an appraisal of the adequacy and effectiveness of the schools can be made.

The tenth topic gives a summary of the findings in the entire study, and presents some of the significant tendencies in these three nations, along with problems facing them.

CHAPTER II

THE HISTORICAL AND CULTURAL BACKGROUND

The aborigines of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay. - Tribes of Indians, most of whom were very hostile, lived in the southern part of South America at the time when the first Spanish explorers arrived.¹

The Patagonians, a race of unusually large stature, lived in the extreme southern end of the continent, where they made their living from the chase and from fishing. Farther north, in the Plata basin, lived the Querandis, the Puelches, and the Charruas. All of these tribes regarded the early explorers as enemies, and thus prevented early colonization in the Plata region. These Indians depended on the chase for their existence, making use of bolas (weapons fashioned by tying rocks or pieces of metal to the ends of ropes or cords) and spears. They fashioned canoes by hollowing out logs and used them in fishing and travelling. They kindled fire by rotating sticks whose sharpened ends rested in dry wood shavings. Some of these Indians made textiles, clothing from leaves, and baskets; others carved objects from wood, and still others made articles and utensils of earthenware.

The natives of Northwest Argentina had developed agriculture on a small scale. Irrigating their fields with water from mountain streams, they raised various fruits and crops, the principal crop being maize. They built their dwellings with rocks. In their many wars they used bolas, spears, and torches.

¹Ricardo Levene, Lecciones de Historia Argentina, pp. 72-77. Buenos Aires: J. Lajouane y Cia., 1930.

In the extreme northwestern part of Argentina were Indians under the influence of the Incas. They had a relatively high civilization, producing various kinds of earthenware, metallic objects, and common utensils. They built good roads and organized an efficient mail service. All of the land was owned by the chief, or Inca, the common people merely occupying the land as tenants.¹

The region of present-day Uruguay was inhabited by the Charruas, a vigorous, indomitable, and warlike people. They lived by hunting and fishing, using horses after these animals had been brought to the Plata region by the Spaniards. They would not submit to any foreign control, and thus constituted an obstacle in the settlement of the Plata region until they were finally exterminated by the armed forces of General Bernabe Rivera in 1832.²

In the southern part of Chile, south of the Maipo River, lived the Araucanians. These Indians were extremely valiant and brave fighters, and were subdued only with great difficulty, after almost three hundred years of resistance to Spanish colonization. Besides hunting and fishing, they practiced a little agriculture. For clothing, they used hides of animals and fabrics of their own manufacture. Offsetting their virtues of physical prowess, bravery, and patriotism were their vices of drunkenness, laziness, and cruelty.³

The northern part of Chile was inhabited by the Chinchas

¹ Ibid.

² Eduardo Acevedo, "Historia Nacional," Anales de Instrucción Primaria, XXXII, No. 1, pp. 1 ff. República Oriental del Uruguay, Dirección de Enseñanza Primaria y Normal. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1932.

³ Luis Galdames, A History of Chile, trans. and ed. Isaac Joslin Cox, pp. 10-14. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1941.

and the Quechuas, who were relatively docile and therefore were absorbed by the Spaniards without much difficulty. The population in this part of Chile was very sparse, owing to the great extent of uninhabitable desert there.

The general level of civilization and culture among the natives in these regions was low. Superstitions abounded. It was believed that the spirits of the dead would return to the earth from time to time, and that there was a future life in which the earthly occupations would be continued. Accordingly, the tools, weapons, and utensils owned by a person were buried with him.

It has been estimated that there were not more than a quarter of a million Indians in all of the present territory of Argentina at any time.¹ Since the area of Argentina is about four times that of Chile and about fifteen times that of Uruguay, and since the Indians of these regions were similarly nomadic, the populations of the latter regions must have been proportionately smaller.² According to the census of 1869, there were ninety-three thousand Indians in Argentina; by 1920 this number had decreased to twenty-four thousand.³ As was their fate in North America, the Indians in South America gradually disappeared in Argentina and Uruguay, and more slowly receded from political and social influence in Chile, being either absorbed by their conquerors or driven into seclusion in remote regions. But there is one highly important difference in their treatment in the two continents: in North America, the Indians were either slain or driven away,

¹J. Fred Rippy, P. A. Martin, I. J. Cox, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile Since Independence, ed. A. Curtis Wilgus, p. 45. Washington: The George Washington University Press, 1935.

²Areas: Argentina, 1,079,965 square miles; Chile, 285,133 square miles; Uruguay, 72,155 square miles.

³Rippy, Martin, Cox, op. cit.

never mingling with the white colonists; in South America the natives were, to a considerable extent, taken into the society of the colonists, educated to some degree in the rudiments of religion and social behavior, and put to work. The South American Indian thus left his marks and characteristics on the following generations in his native land, in sharp contrast with the disappearance of the Indian as a social factor in the northern continent.

However, in Chile, the racial contribution of the Indian to the future society was much less than that in most of the other South American countries, and in Argentina and Uruguay, the influence of the native was still less. The present population of the latter two nations is almost entirely European in origin.

Exploration and colonization. - After the discovery of the new world by Columbus in 1492, many explorers set out from Spain in search of gold, silver, and other precious metals. They gave most of their attention and efforts to Peru and Mexico, where mineral wealth was abundant. They scorned agriculture and therefore paid little attention to regions which were only good for raising crops. This fact largely explains why the Plata River region was not developed or colonized until after Mexico and Peru had been exploited.

Generally speaking, Chile was colonized before the Plata River region. After Pizarro and his men had found a great amount of gold in Peru, some of them thought that they would find much mineral wealth in the region of Chile, which lay to the south.

One of the first explorers to enter Chile was Diego de Almagro, one of Pizarro's lieutenants. Unable to find much gold, and being unfavorably impressed by this country, he returned to Peru in 1535. Undismayed by the failure of Almagro, in 1540

Pedro de Valdivia started on the expedition which was destined to make him the founder of Chile. His force consisted of about two hundred Spaniards and perhaps a thousand friendly Indians. After overcoming many hardships in crossing the desert of Northern Chile and in beating off attacks by hostile Indians, he succeeded in establishing a number of permanent settlements. Some of these prospered and became the present-day cities of Santiago, Concepción, and Valdivia, the latter named for its illustrious founder.¹

The conquest and settlement of the Plata River region proceeded from three main centers: Spain itself, Upper Peru (now known as Bolivia), and Chile. One of the first explorers in the Plata basin was Juan de Solis, who entered the estuary of the great river and sailed about two hundred miles upstream in 1516. During this expedition he was enticed ashore and slain by the hostile Indians inhabiting this territory, whereupon the remaining members of his party returned to Spain. Sebastian Cabot explored this region in the 1520's but started no settlements. In 1535 Pedro de Mendoza set out from Spain and explored this region also. His expedition was noteworthy in that it resulted in the founding of the city of Asunción (in 1535), the base from which Juan de Garay founded the city of Santa Fe in 1573. The city of Buenos Aires was permanently established in 1580 also by Juan de Garay, after two previous attempts, one by Juan de Solis in 1516 and another by Pedro de Mendoza in the period between 1535 and 1541, had been frustrated by the hostile natives.²

In the northwestern part of Argentina, the city of Tucuman was founded in 1564 by settlers from Upper Peru, which

¹Watt Stewart and Harold F. Peterson, Builders of Latin America, pp. 40-49. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942.

²Rippy, op. cit., pp. 47 ff.

bordered this region on the north. Several other cities were founded in this territory by different parties from Upper Peru.

In 1560, an expedition organized by the Governor of Chile, Garcia Hurtado de Mendoza, made its way into Argentina. The city of Mendoza was founded by this group in 1561, in addition to other settlements in the northern part of Argentina.¹

Prior to its emancipation from Spain in 1810, the region which is present-day Uruguay was part of the Viceroyalty of La Plata, its history being similar to that of Argentina. The city of Colonia was founded by the Portuguese, who entered from Brazil, in 1680; in order to counteract Portuguese influence, the Spanish Governor of Buenos Aires, Bruno Mauricio de Zabala, founded the city of Montevideo in 1726.²

Spanish colonization in South America was carried out by chieftains or adelantados as private ventures.³ The explorer or entrepreneur paid all the costs of his expedition, although he often received subsidies from the king; as reward, he was promised certain grants of land, a position of importance in the colony which he proposed to set up, and often a large salary. Private initiative in establishing colonies was perhaps efficient, but it resulted in the exploitation of the inhabitants by the adelantados. This system of colonization had been used in Spain during the struggles for the expulsion of the Moors; when the latter were defeated and driven out, the system was transferred to the new world.

¹Adolfo Garreton, La Instrucción Primaria Durante la Dominación Española en el Territorio que Forma Actualmente la República Argentina, p. 89. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos del Consejo Nacional de Educación, 1939.

²Acevedo, op. cit., p. 8.

³Levene, op. cit., pp. 84 f.

After colonies had been established, they were governed by the Council of the Indies in Spain, a body which was under the direct control of the King of Spain. The more important colonies, such as Mexico and Peru, were ruled by Viceroy - executives appointed by the King. The less important colonies were governed by Captains-General or by Adelantados. Many inspectors were sent from Spain to scrutinize the activities of the other governmental officials, especially to make certain that the King was receiving all the revenues to which he was entitled, such as the "Royal Fifth" of the proceeds of the mines.¹

The colonists and other subjects had little voice in the government, although some of the more influential people might obtain a membership in the town Cabildo (council). Practically the entire body of administrative officials came from Spain. Even the children of migrating Spaniards, born in the colonies, were excluded from government positions. The jealousy between these colonial-born children of Spaniards, or Creoles, and their peninsular-born brethren was a constant source of social friction; along with the exploitation of the colonists by the mother country, it was one of the chief causes of the movements for independence, which was achieved between 1810 and 1820.

The racial and social characteristics which the Spaniards transplanted in America were a blend of those inherited from a number of races of Europe and Africa. Spain had been successively over-run by the Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Visigoths, and Moors - all of whom left their impressions. As a result, the Spaniard of the sixteenth century was a composite of

¹J. Fred Rippey, The Historical Evolution of Hispanic America, (2d ed.), pp. 56 ff. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1940. See also Mary W. Williams, The People and Politics of Latin America, (New Edition), pp. 209 ff. Chicago: Ginn & Co., 1938.

many different races, and he transmitted that heritage to his progeny in America, which, like Spain, was destined to become another melting-pot.¹ The conquistadores and other Spaniards who explored and colonized America were full of vigor and the love of adventure; they were proud of their empire, at that time the mightiest in the world; they mingled very freely with the native races in the newly discovered lands. The gaucho who roamed the pampas in the Plata region and other parts of Argentina inherited his fierce individualism and independent spirit through the union of the Spaniard and the native Indian, or through various combinations of these two races.

The Indians in the Plata basin were exterminated or driven off before the great tide of immigration from the Latin nations of Europe reached this region, those in Uruguay having been eliminated in 1832 and those in Argentina having been driven into comparative seclusion in the southern end of the continent by General Roca in 1879. As a result, the present populations of these two countries contain very little Indian blood.² In Chile, on the other hand, the Indians survived for a long time after the Spaniards and other Europeans had arrived, thus having the time and the opportunity for mingling their blood with that of the other races. Consequently, there is a considerable Indian element in the population of that country.

According to Spanish documents, one purpose of Spanish colonization in America was to Christianize the natives in the

¹N. Andrew N. Cleven, "The Political Heritage of Spanish America", in J. Fred Rippey, P. A. Martin, I. J. Cox, op. cit., pp. 9 ff.

²In the period from 1857 to 1932, the immigration to Argentina was 47 per cent Italian, 33 per cent Spanish, and 20 per cent others. In 1907, of the immigrants arriving at Montevideo, 48 per cent were Italian and 41 per cent were Spanish. See Encyclopaedia Britannica, 14th ed., Vol. II.

newly discovered lands. This purpose is stated in the Papal Bull issued on May 4, 1493 by Pope Alexander VI and addressed to the King of Spain, of which the following part is pertinent:¹

...that the people dwelling in those lands and islands shall embrace the Christian religion.... to enable you, the liberality of apostolic grace being granted to you, to take such an important work in hand with full freedom and daring, we, of our own will, .. out of our own graciousness, and of a certain science and fullness of apostolic power, grant and assign to you for ever and to your heirs and successors.. all the islands and main lands discovered, or found to be discovered, or to be afterwards discovered, westward and southward of a line running..from the North Pole to the South Pole..one hundred leagues west of Cape Verde...

(Negotiations were carried on between Spain and Portugal resulting in the Treaty of Tordesillas, which was signed on June 11, 1494, according to which the line of demarcation between the lands given to Spain and those given to Portugal was set at three hundred seventy leagues west of the Azores.)²

Further evidence that the religious motive was paramount in Spanish colonization in America is found in the conditions stipulated in an agreement between the King of Spain and the explorer Pedro de Mendoza, dated May 21, 1534. According to this agreement, the king required this explorer to take along and maintain the priests and other religious officers appointed by the king for the instruction of the Indians in the Catholic faith - "...with whose advice, and not without it, you [Mendoza] shall make the conquest."³

In a permit for colonization issued on July 22, 1547 to Juan de Sanabria, who proposed to establish a settlement in the

¹ Argentine Republic, Arbitration upon a Part of the National Territory of Misiones Disputed by the United States of Brazil, Argentine Evidence, Vol. I, p. 10. 3 vols.; New York: S. Figueroa, 1893.

² Ibid., pp. 13-24.

³ Ibid., pp. 129-33.

Plata region, the King of Spain specified that eight monks of the Order of San Francisco were to be taken along, "... to be employed in the education and conversion of the natives of the said country... and transported and maintained at your own cost..."¹

The documents quoted above give evidence that the Spanish Kings wished to spread the Catholic religion in the new world, and to make Christians out of the natives there. Perhaps a more compelling reason for the exploration and colonization of America was the desire for wealth with which to replenish the Spanish treasury, depleted by many years of war with the Moors and by unwise management of the nation's finances. The necessity of finding a new route to the Indies, after the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, was another factor in Spanish exploration and the attendant colonization.

¹Ibid., pp. 151-56.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION DURING THE COLONIAL PERIOD

Cooperative control of education by Church and State.

Having secured title to newly discovered lands in America through the Papal Bull of May 4, 1493 on the condition that they would undertake the spreading of the Christian religion, the Spanish kings proceeded to fulfill this obligation. Accompanying all of the exploring parties were priests and other church officials appointed by the king; they promptly established missions in which to educate the natives in order to convert them to Christianity. In this way the Catholic Church secured complete control of elementary education among the natives in the Spanish colonies, the Spanish government leaving the common education of its subjects entirely to the clergy. During the colonial regime, the Spanish government did not consider the instruction of children as a duty of the State, but rather as a moral problem to be handled by the religious groups.¹

The instruction in the mission schools was given in the language of the natives,² a fact which made it necessary for the clergy to provide instruction in native Indian languages for their prospective teachers. Besides teaching the elements of the Christian religion, the mission schools provided the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

¹Orestes Araujo, Historia de la Escuela Uruguaya, p. 2. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1911.

²Ismael Moya, Historia de la Pedagogia Argentina, pp. 79 f. Buenos Aires: Peuser, 1937.

Although the Spanish monarchs did not consider primary education as a state duty, they gave much attention and encouragement to higher education. This concept of the educational obligation of the state had its origin in the belief that only the leaders in a society required education, which would enable them to rule; the common people were merely supposed to obey their rulers - a rôle which did not require much education. Owing to the aristocratic nature of society and to the concept of ruling classes, who needed education in order to govern their subjects, universities were created and maintained before public elementary schools became a concern of the governments of various nations, including Spain. It thus happened that the educational system was built, not from the bottom up, but from the top down - universities received the first attention of governments; then preparatory schools were developed for the universities; and, finally, elementary education was recognized as the essential base of the whole system of education as well as the foundation of a democratic, self-governing society.

There is evidence that a university had been planned in the Spanish colony of Santo Domingo in 1538, by the Dominican Order, but apparently this institution did not function before 1558.¹ The first universities to be officially approved and founded in the Americas were those at Mexico and Lima, in 1551.² The University of Mexico was opened in 1553; that at Lima did not begin operating until about 1576.

The avowed purpose of the Spanish King in founding the

¹John Tate Lanning, Academic Culture in the Spanish Colonies, pp. 12 f. New York: Oxford University Press, 1940.

²Ibid., p. 14.

universities at Mexico and Lima was religious and altruistic. The decree by which they were founded stated the following:¹

To serve God and the public good... and so that our servants, subjects, and natives in these lands should be instructed in all the sciences... and to drive away ignorance ... we create, found, and constitute in the city of Lima, Peru, and in the city of Mexico, New Spain, universities, whose graduates shall enjoy in the Indies, islands, and lands of the ocean, all the liberties and rights which are enjoyed in those lands by the graduates of the University of Salamanca.

This document indicates that the King of Spain had a benevolent interest in his subjects, not only from the religious viewpoint, but also from that of education. It appears that these universities became agencies for the propagation of the Catholic religion, as is indicated by the following statement of Philip III of Spain on April 24, 1618:²

The universities at Lima and Mexico have been founded for the doctrine and teaching of our holy Catholic faith.

Another university which achieved prominence during the colonial period was that at Charcas (Sucre) in present-day Bolivia, officially opened in 1624.³ It was operated by the Jesuits until their expulsion in 1767;⁴ it was then conducted in accordance with practice at the university at Lima until 1798, at which date it became an independent university with the same rights and privileges as the University of Salamanca in Spain.

Altogether, ten major universities and fifteen minor

¹ Recopilación de Leyes de los Reynos de las Indias, Tomo I, Titulo 22, Ley 1. Madrid: Viuda de D. Joaquín Ibarra, 1791.

² Ibid., Tomo III, Titulo 14, Ley 4.

³ Lanning, op. cit., p. 24.

⁴ It was said that the Jesuits had interfered with the government, and had forsaken the tenets of the Catholic Church; see Garretón, op. cit., p. 119.

ones were founded by the Spaniards in their American colonies, the major universities being in the royal or pontifical category, while the minor ones were under the control of the Jesuits, Dominicans, and other religious orders.¹ These universities constituted the foundation of colonial culture, and they were important as centers of Catholicism.

In colonial education, carried on by the Church in alliance with the State, the Catholic Church occupied a position of great power and influence. The Spanish monarchs, in turn, were assisted in the maintenance of their authority and absolute power by the education and training of the natives in ways of obedience and submission, provided by the Church.

The Spanish kings maintained an interest in the universities which had been established in their colonies, and while these universities were usually governed by their own special charters, the king occasionally issued certain regulations for them to follow. Thus, on May 13, 1590, Philip II ordered that, in the University of San Marcos in Lima, a rector should be chosen in alternate years from the secular professors and from the ecclesiastical body.²

Philip II provided financial help for higher education. In a decree issued on January 21, 1591, certain royal revenues and taxes were set aside for the creation of a professorship of grammar at the convent of Santo Domingo in Santiago de Chile.³ This monarch had tried to establish a university in Chile in 1568;

¹Lanning, op. cit., p. 33.

²Garreton, op. cit., p. 25.

³Ibid.

on January 26 of that year, he requested information dealing with that subject. However, opposition by some of the government officials prevented the establishment of a university.¹ Philip II gave financial aid to the other colonial universities, setting aside revenues for the endowment of two professorships in medicine at the University of San Marcos in Lima.²

The Spanish kings likewise cooperated in settling disputes which arose in the colonies over the administration of education. In 1578 and 1579 the Viceroy of Peru, Francisco de Toledo, tried to establish state control over education in that country, in opposition to its control by the Catholic Church. Being frustrated in this attempt by the opposition of the Jesuits and Dominicans, he instituted reprisals against those two orders. The latter then laid the dispute before the reigning sovereign. The king forced the viceroy to cancel his acts of reprisal and to abandon his ambitious designs, in a decree issued on February 22, 1580.³

Thus, higher education was fostered by the Church and by the Spanish kings, while education for the masses of the people was neglected. The local governing bodies in the colonies likewise ignored primary education. It was not the local citizens or individuals who were most to blame for the lack of primary schools, but the superior authorities; the latter were occupied with religious culture rather than with education of a practical nature. The development of towns and of agriculture was stimulated, but common schools received little attention.⁴

¹Garretón, op. cit., p. 24.

²Ibid., p. 25.

³Ibid.

⁴Araujo, op. cit., p. 52.

University education in the Plata Region and Chile. - Be-

cause there was little mineral wealth in the regions of present-day Argentina and Uruguay, these countries received scant attention from the Spanish government until a comparatively late date. Thus, while universities had been founded rather early in such rich countries as Mexico and Peru, higher education did not make its appearance in Argentina until 1613, when Fernando de Treja founded the University of Córdoba; it was strictly a theological school throughout the entire colonial period, offering little instruction in arts or sciences. It was operated by the Jesuits until the expulsion of the latter in 1767; at that date it was taken over by the Franciscans, who managed it until the end of the colonial period.¹

For a long time the University of Córdoba was the only center of superior studies in the Plata region, attracting students from the entire region. But since this university did not teach such subjects as civil law or medicine, young men desiring education in those fields were forced to go elsewhere for this training. Most of these students were attracted to the University of Charcas in present-day Bolivia, which was one of the most famous universities in the Spanish colonies, and the school where many of the patriot leaders in the colonies received their training.²

The University of Buenos Aires was founded in 1771 by the Viceroy of Buenos Aires, Juan José de Vertiz, who had done much to encourage education.³ This university provided training

¹Levene, op. cit., pp. 327 f.

²Ibid.

³Moya, op. cit., p. 96. The university was not completely organized until 1821, which is the date given for its establishment by many other historians.

in some of the subjects which were not taught at the University of Córdoba, thereby fulfilling an important need in the higher education of the Plata region. The universities at Buenos Aires and Córdoba became cultural and educational rivals, the former representing liberalism and the latter guarding conservatism; this was a rivalry which represented the different social currents in the two cities.

As mentioned previously, an attempt by King Philip II to establish a university in Chile in 1568 had been unsuccessful. The young men of Chile who desired higher education went to the university at Lima, Peru; this often necessitated long journeys. (The length of Chile is about 2,500 miles, and it lies directly south of Peru.) Finally, in 1738, after petitions had been made to the reigning sovereign in Spain, Chile secured its first institution of higher education - the University of San Felipe.¹ Actual teaching did not begin until 1758, on account of difficulties of various sorts which delayed the opening of the university.

Being out of contact with the modern nations of Europe, and lacking good communication with the more progressive Plata region, Chile remained more conservative than Argentina or Uruguay. Evidently this conservatism was reflected in the program of the University of San Felipe, since it was closed in 1839 because its methods and studies were too antiquated. Four years later, in 1843, the National University of Chile was organized from its remains.²

Almost at the beginning of Chilean independence, in 1811, another institution of higher learning was opened in Chile - the

¹Galdames-Cox, op. cit., p. 125.

²Amanda Labarca-Hubertson, Historia de la Enseñanza en Chile, p. 108. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Universitaria, 1939.

National Institute of Chile. This institution provided both secondary and higher education in arts, sciences, and humanities. It was considered the chief center of Chilean culture for a long time; this position was not altogether lost even after the founding of the National University of Chile in 1843.¹

We thus see that only three important centers of higher education existed during the colonial period in all of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, and that their status was not so high as that of the older universities - those in the cities of Mexico, Lima, and Charcas. A great deal of the instruction offered was in theology and philosophy; very little attention was given to sciences and practical subjects.

The administration of the universities during the colonial period followed a general pattern.² In the first place, every university had its own charter, which was granted by the King of Spain and usually approved by the Pope. The charter bestowed certain rights and privileges upon the university and its members - including students as well as members of the various faculties. It also provided some prescriptions as to the administration of the university, although leaving general control to the Assembly of the University through the agency and direction of the Rector. The latter, as head of the university, was chosen by a vote of all the members of the university faculties; he held office for one year, and could be re-elected only after the expiration of a two-year interval. His duties involved general supervision of the entire university, with everything which that entailed, including matters of discipline, supervision of teaching, and financial

¹Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., pp.118 f.

²Lanning, op. cit., pp. 34-59.

management. To make sure that dishonesty was eliminated or at least held to a minimum, one of the first duties of the rector upon taking office was a careful examination of the financial administration of the university by his predecessor.

During the early days of the Spanish colonial universities, the members of the faculties were chosen by a vote of all the other faculty members and the students. Later, this practice was abolished, the professors in most cases being chosen by a committee of church and university officials.¹

Contrary to the general spirit of the times, the universities were slightly democratic in that they provided financial aid for needy but deserving students. However, students were kept in close surveillance; they were not allowed to marry without the permission of the rector; they were required to dress conservatively; and they were forbidden to carry weapons. The student jail was an essential part of the university.

Admission to the universities was usually forbidden to illegitimate boys and to those of "impure" blood. With the mingling of races and the growth of liberalism in thought, these restrictions were gradually abolished. Graduations were attended with great pomp and the concomitant expense.² The candidate had to be presented by a godfather, who paid a substantial fee, and also had to make numerous gifts to faculty members. A condition tantamount to the outright selling of degrees prevailed for a time at the University of San Felipe in Chile.³

¹Lanning, op. cit., pp. 55 f.

²The candidate was required to give members of his examining board specified amounts of sweets and delicacies. See Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., pp. 38 f.

³Lanning, op. cit., p. 52.

It has been estimated that 150,000 students received degrees from the Spanish universities in America during the colonial period, that is, from the time of their founding until the approximate date of 1810.¹ During the interval from its founding in 1738 (teaching did not begin until 1758) until 1810, the University of San Felipe, in Chile, gave 166 degrees in theology, 128 in law, only 5 in medicine, and none in mathematics.² This latter compilation reveals the emphasis on religion and slighting of other subjects during the colonial period.

With the requirement that every one receiving a degree had to profess his adherence to the Catholic faith,³ and the fact that the degree-holders went forth as leaders in their communities, one can discern that the universities exerted great influence in the propagation of the Catholic religion, which was a result desired in their establishment and maintenance.

Since the universities depended upon preparatory schools, the development of the latter occurred as the need for them was reflected in the universities - an oddity to people who are accustomed to regard the educational ladder as leading from the primary school to the secondary school, and from the secondary school to the university. At this time, therefore, the development of secondary education will be described, as it occurred during the colonial period in the Spanish colonies which later became Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay.

¹Lanning, op. cit., p. 53.

²Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit. p. 30.

³Recopilación de Leyes de los Reynos de las Indias, Tomo I, Título 22, Ley 15.

Secondary education in the Plata region and Chile. - While the most plausible reason for the establishment of secondary schools in the colonies would be the preparation of students for entrance to the universities, that was not the reason given for founding such schools in an order of the King of Spain in 1557. A decree of September 8, 1557 included the following provisions:¹

So that the sons of the Indian chiefs who have to govern the Indians should from childhood be instructed in our Holy Catholic Faith, there shall be founded by our order some colegios in the provinces of Peru, endowed with income for this purpose. And since it is important that they should be aided and favored, we order the viceroys... to encourage their conservation and growth, and in the principal cities of Peru and Mexico to found others, to which shall be taken the sons of the chiefs at a young age and entrusted to religious and diligent persons, who shall teach and indoctrinate them in Christianity, good manners, and Castilian language, and shall supply them with income comparable to their breeding and education.

From this quotation it is evident that the Spanish monarch desired the future leaders among the Indians to be loyal Catholics, and to have a careful and circumspect training which would enable them to occupy leading positions. It is also clear that the sons of the Indian chiefs were to receive elementary education on the primary level, and that they were to be provided with the means of subsistence in keeping with their social position. This provision was designed to benefit the uppermost social group among the natives.

On the same day that the above order was given, another decree² was issued for the purpose of improving the lot of the lower classes. It directed that there should be founded in the city of Mexico a school for poor children which would teach them

¹Recopilación de Leyes de los Reynos de las Indias, Tomo I, Título 23, Ley 11.

²Ibid., Ley 14.

Christian doctrine and good habits, thus preventing them from becoming vagabonds. This school was intended for mixed breeds as well as for pure races.

On June 8, 1592, bishops in the Indies were given authority to establish seminaries in accordance with the provisions of the Council of Trent.¹ At such seminaries, admission was forbidden to the sons of ordinary laborers and of lower class people, including those who were engaged in "infamous" occupations.²

The preceding orders issued by the Spanish kings reveal the religious motives for the establishment of schools on the secondary level. While such schools prepared the youth for positions of leadership, and gave them religious training, they also prepared the students for entrance to the universities. However, the Spanish government did not set up any definite system of secondary or preparatory education in the American colonies, but allowed this service to be taken over by religious orders.

Secondary education in the Spanish colonies was carried on mainly by the Jesuits, who had devoted their efforts to this branch of education since their founding in 1540. By 1585 the Jesuits had established themselves in Argentina, and between that date and 1690 they opened many colleges, started libraries, and established numerous workshops throughout the northern part of the country; they were very industrious and efficient. The college of Monserrat was established under their direction at the University of Cordoba in 1695, to prepare students for that university.³ Until the opening of the Real Colegio de San Carlos

¹Ibid., Ley 1. The Council of Trent ordered the establishment of a seminary in every bishopric to indoctrinate the youth.

²Ibid., Ley 3.

³Moya, op. cit., p. 66.

at Buenos Aires in 1783, the colleges of the Jesuits evidently were the only institutions providing secondary education in the region of Argentina and Uruguay.¹

In Chile, until the end of the eighteenth century, there were no schools of secondary education except two religious seminaries and a preparatory school known as the "Convictorio Carolino". The instruction given in these schools was not much above the primary level, although the admission requirements specified that only boys who were ten years of age, or more, and who knew reading and writing, could be admitted.²

At the seminaries, all the students were carefully supervised by the school officials, during and outside of classes. This supervision extended to all of the student's affairs - his mail was censored, his pockets searched, and all of his associations closely watched.

The secondary schools of the Jesuits were designed to train leaders for the Catholic Church. Their regimen was strict and thorough; the teachers were usually well trained. Contact between teacher and student made for close understanding, especially since most of the instruction was given orally.³ Until their expulsion from the Spanish colonies in 1767, the Jesuits provided a rather high quality of secondary education; the closing of their schools was a severe blow to colonial education.

There is evidence that during the last two decades of the colonial period - from 1787 to 1810 - secondary education was

¹Levene, op. cit., p. 326.

²República Argentina, Documentos para la Historia Argentina, Tomo XVIII, p.245. Buenos Aires: Talleres S. A. Casa Jacobo Peuser, Ltda., 1924.

³Paul Monroe, A Text-Book in the History of Education, pp. 420-29. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938.

not very effective. Complaint was made that large numbers of lazy students lingered in the schools, attending classes but never taking the final examinations because they were afraid of failing. This set a bad example for other students, and it constituted a waste of time and resources. In spite of the fact that only a select group of youth entered the secondary schools, the achievements in these schools were not satisfactory.¹

One reason for the low standards in the secondary schools during this period was the lack of suitable teachers. After the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1767, many of their schools were taken over by the local governments or by different religious orders, and these bodies did not have the required teaching personnel. Another drawback was the lack of books and school equipment - a problem which has hindered the development of education in Latin America until the present time.

Secondary education, like higher education, was obviously dominated by the Catholic Church during the colonial period, and the purpose of both branches of education was to strengthen the position and authority of the Church by training leaders selected from the upper ranks of the social order. It was not considered necessary to educate the common people, because they were destined to follow menial occupations requiring little if any learning. The development of elementary education was a haphazard process, receiving only scant consideration in isolated situations; it was not considered a duty of the State. The principal events in the field of elementary education during the colonial period, in which elementary education was chiefly preparatory for the secondary schools, merit examination.

¹República Argentina, Documentos...., op. cit., p. 91.

Primary education in the Plata Region and Chile. - The first primary education or teaching in the Spanish colonies was given at the universities, there being no other educational institutions at that time. The universities therefore were forced to operate their own preparatory schools, which had to include primary as well as secondary education.¹

There were no universities in the Plata territory before the establishment of the University of Córdoba in 1613. It happened therefore that the first school teacher who practiced his profession in this region was Pedro de Vega, who opened a school in the city of Santa Fe in 1574.² He had accompanied Juan de Garay on the expedition which resulted in the founding of that city. He taught reading, writing, counting, and Christian doctrine, receiving compensation in the form of various kinds of produce. Evidently his efforts were not appreciated, because he was asked to close his school by the local officials a few years later. Having complied with that request, he disappeared from educational history.

The next teacher whose activities in this part of the region are recorded was Rafael de Castro, who taught a school also in Santa Fe, receiving his salary in the form of such goods as biscuits, cotton, linen, wine, and sheep;³ he operated his school in 1594 and during several following years.

The Franciscan Order had started primary schools in the Spanish colonies in America as early as 1580.⁴ They founded

¹ Garretón, op. cit., p. 26.

² Moya, op. cit., p. 42.

³ Ibid., p. 133.

⁴ Ibid., p. 36.

a school in Buenos Aires in 1582, only two years after the founding of that city. They were quite active in primary education, for it was said that "...in all places where the Franciscans reside, there are schools in connection with the Church..."¹

The Jesuits had started educational activities in the Plata territory as early as 1585, but, since their chief interest was in secondary and higher education, they did not open a primary school in Buenos Aires before 1607. Instruction in their schools was paid for by the students.²

The first official action by the civil authorities of Buenos Aires on behalf of primary education occurred on August 1, 1605. On that day the Cabildo of Buenos Aires approved a petition presented to it by Francisco de Vitorio for the employment of a teacher of reading, writing, and counting. The teacher was to receive compensation at the rate of one peso per month for each student taught reading, and two pesos per month for each student taught writing and counting. Evidently the teacher who was selected at that time did not keep his position very long, because a different teacher was appointed to the post in 1608. This school was the first one conducted by the city of Buenos Aires, and apparently the first one to be operated by any civil government in the Plata territory.³

The school operated by the city of Buenos Aires competed with the schools of the Franciscans and Jesuits. However, it grew in importance and drawing power, and was not able to accommodate

¹Ibid.

²Ibid., p. 45.

³República Argentina, Documentos...., op. cit., p. V.

all the children who needed primary education. Accordingly, on January 19, 1722, two more municipal schools were established, the teachers in each of them being granted one hundred pesos yearly apiece.¹ Evidently these schools were not very attractive, because one of them was closed in 1731 for the reason that no teacher could be found to fill a vacancy.² However, the municipal schools gradually increased in number and usefulness as the population of Buenos Aires grew.

In the region of present-day Uruguay, the first primary school was opened in Montevideo in 1730, under the direction of a priest named José Nicolas Barrales. A private school for girls was founded a few years later as a result of the efforts and patronage of Doña Clara Zabala de Vidal.³

The Franciscans conducted primary schools in Uruguay from 1750 until the end of the colonial period, and the Jesuits also operated some primary schools in this region.⁴

A new era in education in the Plata region began after the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1767. The State began to exercise control over education and to interest itself in the welfare of the masses of common people, owing to the liberal and progressive policies of King Charles III. This monarch tried to reform and improve education in the colonies. In 1771 he issued a decree⁵ stating certain requirements for prospective teachers, which

¹Moya, op. cit., p. 89.

²Ibid., p. 90.

³Orestes Araujo, La Instrucción Pública Primaria en la República Oriental del Uruguay, pp. 8 ff. Montevideo: Dirección General de Instrucción Primaria, 1911.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Moya, op. cit., p. 94.

included the following:

The applicant had to be examined and approved in Christian doctrine.

He was required to present a certificate signed by three witnesses, which vouched for the honorable life, good habits, and pure blood of the applicant.

After satisfying these requirements, the applicant was to pass an examination in reading, writing, and arithmetic; upon a creditable showing in these subjects, the applicant would then be considered eligible.

In another decree in 1781, Charles III made changes in methods of instruction, prescribed adequate textbooks, and urged compulsory education.¹

After the establishment of the Viceroyalty of La Plata in 1776, the civil government assumed an increasing degree of control over primary education, and after 1783 primary education was separated from middle and higher education, coming under control of the local councils or cabildos.² However, the primary schools maintained by the religious orders of Franciscans and Dominicans were allowed to continue.

The development of primary education in Chile was also a slow process. There is no evidence of a single primary school in Chile before 1575, at least.³ During the last quarter of the sixteenth century the Franciscans established some primary schools in Chile.⁴

On September 12, 1578 the Cabildo of Santiago requested that a man named Salinas be excused from military service in order to teach reading and writing, but it is uncertain whether he conducted a school or not. Another petition for a school was made on May 22, 1584.⁵ However, religious orders provided primary schools.

¹República Argentina, Documentos...., op. cit., p. xl.

²Garretón, op. cit., p. 123.

³Ibid., p. 89.

⁴Galdames-Cox, op. cit., p. 83.

⁵José Toribio Medina, La Instrucción Pública en Chile, pp. ix ff. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Elzeviriana, 1905.

At the primary schools maintained by the religious orders, the cost of instruction was borne by the student. He even had to furnish his own seat, in many cases, since there was practically no school equipment in those days.¹

In the classrooms, the students were divided into two or more groups, according to their wealth and social position.² This reveals the extremely undemocratic nature of early education and social life in Chile.

Corporal punishment in these schools was very common, a maxim being "Learning enters with the blood."

Education for girls was carried on in the home, and not in any formal school.³ It was felt that the only education which women needed was that of managing a house and home. Some historians maintain that the Spaniards did not want their women to be educated for fear that they would write to lovers.⁴

However, there were isolated instances of schools for girls during the colonial period. Mention has been made of such a school in Montevideo; in addition, a school for creole girls was opened in Chile;⁵ another school for girls was opened in Buenos Aires in 1617.⁶ In 1722, a primary school for girls from poor families was opened in Buenos Aires by an organization known as the "Sisters of Charity."⁷ In general, however, the education of women was almost entirely neglected.

¹Galdames-Cox, op. cit., p. 127.

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

⁴República Argentina, Documentos...., op. cit., p. XXXIV.

⁵Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 63.

⁶Garretón, op. cit., p. 144.

⁷Ibid., p. 145.

The methods of teaching in the colonial primary schools were those of rote memory, repetition, and chorus. Few books were to be had; usually there was one for the teacher and another one for the rest of the class. Only about a dozen books were approved by the church and civil authorities for use in the schools, including a catechism, history of Spain, geography, and a "Guide Book for Sinners" (perhaps like the famous New England Primer). There was hardly any paper or writing equipment. The native language was used in the mission schools when they were first founded, and it was not until nearly the end of the colonial period that Spanish grammar was taught.¹

Little information is available about the organization of the primary schools during the colonial period. The school hours, in 1794, at a typical primary school were from seven to ten in the morning and from three to six in the afternoon, with a change in schedule during different seasons. There were separate schools for boys and girls, a custom which prevailed until the middle of the nineteenth century or later.²

Practically no statistics concerning the numbers of students at the colonial primary schools are available. A census taken in Buenos Aires by Manuel de Basabilbosa showed that the total enrollment in the municipal and private schools of all kinds was about thirteen hundred pupils, an estimated third of all the children of school age,³ in 1773.

Until the colonies became independent from Spain and the patriot leaders and citizens realized the need for common education for every one, primary education made little advance.

¹Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 33.

²Garretón, op. cit., p. 249.

³Op. cit., p. 129.

Summary and appraisal of Spanish colonial education. -

In the Spanish colonies, church and state cooperated in the administration and control of education, each acting to support and maintain the authority and interests of the other.

In the field of higher education, the Spanish Kings fostered many universities and took an active interest in them. They also established some schools of secondary rank. But in the education of the common people they showed little interest; although a few schools on the primary level were maintained by the town cabildos (sometimes called "Schools of the King"), and others were operated by private groups or through individual initiative, practically all primary education was left to the Catholic Church and to its various orders.

Thus, the concept of public education as a state duty did not arise until late in the colonial period, and it was not really effective until many years after the colonies had won their independence. However, as early as 1750 the government officials in the colonies began to realize that it was not possible to raise the spiritual and economic level of the people without the benefits of education.¹ There began to dawn the idea that the education of all the people was necessary for the welfare and progress of the State itself, as well as for the benefit of the individual.

The growing interest in education was evident in the action taken by King Charles III to improve the schools in his colonies, which have been previously referred to. Further growth of public education was facilitated in the Plata region by the creation, in 1776, of the Viceroyalty of La Plata, which gave citizens a somewhat greater share in their own government and

¹Moya, op. cit., p. 129.

also in matters pertaining to education. Thereafter, the influence of the state increased in the field of education, reducing somewhat the influence of the Church, although the latter institution continued to maintain a strong position, even after the colonies had won their independence from Spain.

While the administration of education by the religious orders undoubtedly raised the moral and cultural level of the people, it had some unfavorable effects. Several of these were the development of habits of unquestioning obedience to authority, the instillation of a spirit of mysticism, the discouragement of scientific studies, and prejudice against new social theories. Perhaps it was with this in mind that one writer has stated that a benefit of the expulsion of the Jesuits was "the removal from primary education, in Buenos Aires, of the superstitions, gross impostures, and prejudices which had been used as a means for seizing and dominating the will and spirit of the children."¹

In striving to maintain the Catholic faith in the new world by creating the Inquisition as an agency for suppressing heresy, the Spanish officials crushed many liberal and progressive social aspirations, thereby hindering intellectual advancement in the colonies. A tight censorship was placed on all books being sent to the colonies, in order to keep out any new ideas which might undermine the authority of the Church or of the State.² No traveler could enter the colonies without a permit from the Council of the Indies in Spain, and no permits were

¹Garretón, op. cit., p. 144.

²On September 13, 1543, a royal decree prohibited in American lands the use of books of "profane and fabulous matters, such as the books of Amadis and others of that kind of lying histories." See Moya, op. cit., p. 80.

issued to any person whose ideas did not conform to those of the Church and the Spanish government. Accordingly, many good and socially useful ideas were prevented from reaching the people in the colonies.

Many historians have severely condemned Spanish colonial policy, and have maintained that Spain deliberately prevented the spread of education in order to keep her colonies under subjection.¹ Others, very much in the minority, have presented Spanish activities in a less unfavorable light. Examples of two types of judgments on Spanish policy are given below.

In the introductory statement of a decree issued by the National Junta of the Government of Chile, on June 8, 1813, is this charge:²

The cabinet at Madrid very frequently issues orders for the suppression of schools, the discharge of professors, and the abolition, in America, of every kind of useful study. Spain desires that the natives of these countries will not, for one moment, awaken from the lethargy which has prevented them from feeling the burdens imposed upon them, from the denial to them of any industry, culture, or commerce, and from the extreme cruelty of keeping them ignorant of the primary rudiments of science....

The reader must bear in mind that the above charge was made when the newly created Chilean nation was fighting for its life against Spain, and that it therefore might not have been altogether fair to Spain.

Representing a more favorable opinion of Spain's treatment of her colonies is the following:³

It is the conviction today among historians studying sources, that the Spanish colonization in South America

¹ The war between Spain and the United States in 1898-1900 did not promote objectivity.

² Guillermo Gonzalez, *Memoria Historia de la Educación Pública*, 1810-1900, p. 18. Santiago de Chile: Meza Hnos., 1913.

³ Abel Cháneton, *La Instrucción Primaria en la Época Colonial*, pp. 17-21. Buenos Aires: Consejo Nacional de Educación, 1936.

was superior, in almost all of its aspects, to English colonization in North America, or to the French colonization anywhere...

... There was the same liberty in the South American colonies that there was in Spain.

The history of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay has been influenced a great deal by the theoretical and abstract nature of education during the colonial period. The majority of the patriot leaders during the revolution against the mother country were university men who had been educated in the old, aristocratic theory of government; they had not been trained or educated for the purpose of understanding the social life and affairs of the people whom they were destined to lead. Consequently, during the early days of these republics, forms of government were devised which proved unsuited to the masses of the people and to the times. Furthermore, as a result of the educational system which provided training and culture only for the higher classes, while leaving the rest of the people in ignorance, there was created a gulf between the leaders of the new nations and the masses of common people. As was to be expected, the two groups did not understand or appreciate each other; cooperation between them was very difficult; and dictatorship and anarchy were destined to arise and continue until this deficiency in education and social adjustment could be corrected. As it happened, the common people were not educated enough to govern themselves wisely or effectively, and, needing a leader, they followed any ambitious caudillo who caught their fancy.

Having seen the results of Spain's influence in the education and culture of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, we must now examine the manner in which other nations helped to shape the intellectual and social development of the newly created republics upon their emancipation from Spanish rule.

CHAPTER IV

FOREIGN INFLUENCES

After Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay had won their independence,¹ they were torn by so much internal strife and dissension that they could not give more than passing attention to public education, although the lack of education was one of the reasons for their troubles. The new nations needed educational leadership as well as political leadership. After they had freed themselves from the rule of Spain, they looked to other nations for guidance, and, while they modeled their constitutions after that of the United States, it was mainly the European nations, France especially, to whom they turned for cultural and educational guidance.

France was the logical foster-mother for these nations in a cultural way, because its people, its language, and its social customs were closely akin to those of the other Latin nations; being separated from Spanish rule and Spanish authority, these young nations looked to France as the leader of the Latin peoples. Therefore, French influence has perhaps been more extensive in the education and culture of the Latin American nations than has that of any other nation.

¹In Argentina, revolution began with the deposing of the Viceroy at Buenos Aires on May 25, 1810; formal independence was declared on July 9, 1816.

The Chilean revolution began in 1810 also, and the nation gained its independence in 1818.

The Uruguayans revolted in 1810; before they could establish their independence, they were attacked by the Portuguese from Brazil in 1816, and were made subjects of the latter in 1821. They won their independence from Brazil in 1825.

In Argentina. - A specific acknowledgment of the great effect of French influence on the culture of Argentina was made by a speaker in the Argentine Congress in 1878:¹

The nation which we study most, unfortunately, is France. Its laws and debates are those which most influence our ideas and propositions, many times without criterion for that which passes among us.

France was cited as a nation where a great amount of freedom prevailed in the schools, and its primary schools were considered satisfactory by people of importance in Argentina.²

It is evident that Argentina imitated French institutions and customs, sometimes without considering the fact that conditions in Argentina and France were different. For example, in 1863 the French system of secondary schools (lycée) was used as the model for the secondary schools in Argentina.³

At various times Argentine officials were sent to France to study educational practices. Thus, in 1865, a representative was sent to France to study the military school of St. Cyr. Upon his return to Argentina, a military school was set up in Buenos Aires modeled after the one in France.⁴

School equipment and supplies were obtained from France at various times; this included books for the National Library of Argentina and scientific instruments for the secondary schools.

French influence was reflected in the courses of study in the Argentine secondary schools, which gave prominence to the French language.

¹República Argentina, Debates Parlamentarios sobre Instrucción Pública, Tomo I, p. 219. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1904.

²Ibid., pp. 141 ff.

³República Argentina, Report upon the State of Secondary and Normal Education in the Argentine Republic, pp. 7 ff. La Plata: Talleres de Publicaciones del Museo, 1893.

⁴Ibid.

German influence was also felt in the education of Argentina. In 1869 a law authorized the securing of twenty professors for the University of Córdoba; seven of these were obtained from Germany.¹ These German professors taught mathematics and physics, and they later founded a scientific society.²

On February 3, 1870, a subvention of fifty pesos monthly was granted to Leopoldo J. Bohm for introducing into Argentina the Froebelian method of teaching in kindergartens, reference being made at the same time to kindergartens in Germany, England, and the United States.³

A decree of April 26, 1873 nominated Dr. D. Cristiano Augusto Vogler, Professor of Geodesy and Hydrotechnics at the Polytechnic Academy of Munich to a similar position in Argentina.⁴ Dr. Burmeister, a German professor, was confirmed as scientific director of the Academy of Exact Sciences at the University of Córdoba on December 15, 1873.⁵

While references to education in various other European nations were made from time to time in the sessions of the Argentine Congress and in the writings of various educational officials, the influence of such other nations on Argentina was slight.

¹ República Argentina, Censo General de Educación Levantado el 23 de Mayo de 1909, (Alberto B. Martínez), Vol. III, pp. 32 f. Buenos Aires: Talleres de Publicación de la Oficina Meteorológica Argentina, 1910.

² República Argentina, Los Mensajes - Historia del Desarrollo de la Nación Argentina, 1810-1910, Vol. III, p. 327. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de la Compañía General de Fósforos, 1910.

³ República Argentina, Registro Nacional de la República Argentina, que Comprende los Documentos Espedidos desde 1810 hasta 1890, Vol. VI, Document No. 7819. Buenos Aires: Taller Tipográfico de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1884.

⁴ República Argentina, Memoria Presentada al Congreso Nacional de 1874, p. 43 (Annex). Buenos Aires: Imprenta Lit. y Fund. de Tipos, de la Sociedad Anonima, 1874.

⁵ Ibid., p. xl.

Largely through the agency of Domingo F. Sarmiento, the outstanding educational leader in Argentina and perhaps the greatest in all of Latin America, the influence of the United States has been of major importance in the schools of Argentina. During his visit to the United States in 1847, Sarmiento became a close friend of Horace Mann and an admirer of the common schools of this country. After the American Civil War, Sarmiento was appointed Minister to the United States by Argentina; during this second visit he continued his interest in the common school system. He became convinced that the progress made by the United States was the result of spreading education to all of the people.

After Sarmiento had returned to Argentina in 1868, as President of Argentina, he founded a normal school at Paraná and chose as its director a famous New England educator, Dr. George Stearns.¹ He also secured about twenty women teachers from the United States, some of whom became directors of normal schools, while others taught in the primary schools of Argentina. Other teachers were secured from the United States during the administrations of Presidents Avellaneda and Roca, who succeeded Sarmiento.² In this way, North American study plans and school methods were implanted in Argentina, influencing its educational growth.

The normal school at Paraná, which was founded in 1870, was a model of those in the United States; its organization was similar to those in the latter country, and its examinations were given on the same plan.³ The closeness with which the North American system was followed indicates the great extent to which

¹República Argentina, Memoria....1874, p. 157.

²República Argentina, Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza Secundaria y Normal, pp. 25, 243, 585. Buenos Aires: Taller Tipográfico de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1903.

³República Argentina, Memoria....1874, p. 777.

Argentina was influenced by practice in the United States.

The general feeling among Argentine statesmen in regard to the schools of the United States is indicated by the following statement, expressed in the Argentine Congress in 1883:¹

Let us consider the nation which we have taken as a model - the United States of America - where Deputy Achaval found its system of schools to be the base of its greatness, without example elsewhere... The basis of this greatness is the intellectual development of the masses...

In connection with Argentina's presentation of textbooks and school equipment at the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago in 1893, it was said that "Argentina has celebrated the event under the auspices of the nation which has been its model."²

It is evident that while French influence was very strong in Argentina during the early period in the republic, implanting Latin culture and educational methods in the secondary and higher schools, the influence of the democratic, progressive United States was more important in the establishment and development of a nation-wide system of elementary schools.

In Chile. - French influence was dominant in Chilean education from the winning of independence in 1818 until approximately 1880, at which time it was supplanted by German influence. French romanticism and literature appealed strongly to the youth in all of Latin America during that period, and this was especially true in Chile.³

A law governing public education in Chile, enacted

¹ República Argentina, Debates Parlamentarios sobre Instrucción Pública, Tomo II, p. 563. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1904.

² República Argentina, Informe - Educación Común en la Capital, Provincias, y Territorios Nacionales, Año 1892, Tomo I, pp. 238 ff. Buenos Aires: Compañía Sud-Americana de Billetes de Banco, 1893.

³ Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., pp. 108 ff.

in 1842, imitated the fundamental precepts of the Napoleonic Law of 1808 by establishing the principle of the teaching State. It made the President of the Republic the patron of the university, giving him authority to nominate and remove the professors or the rector, and to exercise general control over the university.¹

French influence showed itself in 1845 when the Chilean Congress appropriated money for the creation, in Santiago, of an industrial and technical school which was opened under the direction of a French educator and subsequently managed entirely by French instructors for a considerable time.²

However, shortly after 1870, French influence began to decline. Germany had won the war with France in that year, and France lost favor in the opinions of Chileans thereafter. Believing that the German schoolmaster had been responsible for the victory, the Chilean educators and statesmen looked to Germany for new ideas and new methods in education.³

Accordingly, primary education in Chile was modified between 1881 and 1886, German principles and techniques being adopted. The normal schools also were reorganized along German lines; the teachers and professors directing these schools were recruited almost exclusively from Germany for a number of years after this period. The Pedagogical Institute, founded in 1889 to provide modern training for secondary school teachers, was operated almost exclusively by Germans.⁴

During the period between 1886 and 1891, secondary

¹Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 108.

²Ibid., p. 125.

³Ibid., p. 181.

⁴Moises Vargas, Bosquejo de la Instrucción Pública en Chile, p. 7. Santiago de Chile: Moneda Balcolla y Cia., 1909.

education was reorganized under German methods also, teachers in this branch being trained in the newly opened pedagogical institute.¹ However, during the same period, agricultural education was reformed in accordance with French methods, and some schools of arts and offices likewise felt French influence.

During this same period, industrial schools for women were created by German and Austrian professors; the school of engineering imported several professors from Belgium and Holland; manual training and woodwork were started under Swedish methods.²

In the education of women, German influence was felt in the normal schools. In March, 1885, fourteen women teachers were brought in from Germany for the purpose of giving instruction in psychology, hygiene, and physical culture.³

One important result of German influence in Chilean education was the introduction of the reasoned and psychologized lesson, supplanting the rote memory which had been common up to 1880. While this represented an advantage, it was partly offset by the introduction of a different type of social and national life which was foreign to Chilean institutions and dispositions. Therefore, while the German methods were efficient, the Chileans began to search for better teachers in their own nation; the feeling that Chile should be educated by Chileans arose.

Consequently, after 1905, all foreign influence in Chilean education began to decline. Almost no German or North American educators were imported after 1906.⁴ Nevertheless, Chile continued to maintain an active interest in foreign schools.

¹Vargas, op. cit., p. 8.

²Ibid.

³Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 199.

⁴Ibid., p. 221

Groups of primary teachers were sent to other nations in order to broaden their training. For example, in 1927, twenty teachers were sent to foreign countries for three-year visits; some of them went to the United States, others to Germany, and others to Switzerland.¹ In 1932, six Chilean teachers were sent to Germany for five-year visits.²

The influence of Great Britain was felt in Chile during the period when the Lancasterian methods were used in the schools, in the early 1820's. However, these schools being of short duration, British influence was slight on the education of the country as a whole.³

The influence of the United States upon the educational system has been slight.⁴ Despite the fact that Sarmiento, who achieved considerable fame in Chile as an educator and statesman, had sent recommendations to Santiago based on his favorable impression of schools in the United States, these suggestions were not adopted. Some schools in Chile adopted methods and practices used in the United States, four Chilean educators were sent to study the system of public education there, and provisions were made for the exchange of professors between the University of Chile and universities in the United States;⁵ however, there is no evidence that any of these things affected Chilean education to any appreciable extent.

Manuel Carvallo, Chilean Minister to the United States

¹ Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 300.

² Ibid., p. 301.

³ The Lancasterian schools lasted from 1821 until about 1826.

⁴ Henry Clay Evans, Chile and its Relations with the United States, pp. 60 ff. Durham, N. C.: Duke University Press, 1927.

⁵ Ibid., p. 164.

in the 1880's, studied the progress of agriculture in this country. The circulation of his reports in Chile caused that nation to import some agricultural equipment from the United States and to secure some experts from the latter nation to assist in improving the cultivation of wheat in the central part of Chile.¹

Mr. L. S. Rowe, after a visit to Chile in 1908, reported that the influence of Germany on the educational system of Chile had been greater than that of the United States, largely because German teachers learned the language and customs of the Chileans and adapted themselves to the Chilean environment more readily and completely than did teachers from the United States.²

In recent years, Chile and Argentina have considered themselves capable of independent progress in education, and they have not adopted completely any system or practice found in a foreign country. Their own educational progress and their growing spirit of nationalism have made them confident of their ability and competence in education.

In Uruguay. - Various nations have influenced the education and culture of Uruguay. French influence prevailed for a considerable period after the country had won its independence, as it did in Argentina and Chile. School celebrations of many national holidays were praised and compared with the French celebration of Bastille Day.³ University students have been sent to Europe and the United States on scholarships; others have visited

¹Evans, op. cit., p. 60.

²Leo Stanton Rowe, Educational Progress in the Argentine Republic and Chile, Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ending June 30, 1909. United States Bureau of Education, pp. 341-49. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1909.

³República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria del Ministerio de Instrucción Pública, 1913-15, pp. 407 ff. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos A. Barreiro y Ramos, 1915.

various foreign countries to get new ideas and to broaden their education.¹

The United States has had considerable influence on the educational system of Uruguay. As early as 1813 the great Uruguayan patriot Artigas had been impressed by the United States, whose republican form of government and civil and religious liberty appealed to him. Artigas encouraged the founding of several schools modeled after those in the United States, but the Portuguese invasion in 1816 and other troubles nullified his efforts. Many years later another leader in Uruguay, José Pedro Varela, visited the United States and got the model for a system of primary schools which was shortly thereafter adopted in Uruguay.² This marked the real beginning of the national system of primary schools in that nation.

The influence of the United States on the schools of Uruguay was emphasized in 1928 upon the dedication of a primary school which was named the "Escuela Estados Unidos de America." At the opening ceremonies, attended by the wife of President-Elect Herbert Hoover, the Director of Education in Uruguay said:³

Uruguay is linked to the United States of America by two grand traditions of glory.... The first is due to Artigas, the founder of the Uruguayan State. The second is due to José Pedro Varela, the organizer of our primary education.... The ideas encouraged by Artigas - legislative government, civil and religious liberty.... were inspired by the examples and practices in the United States of America.... Three-quarters of a century later Varela was in the United States of America, and from there he obtained new models of primary education, thanks to which the Uruguayan schools have made great progress.

¹Ibid.

²República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente al Año 1928 Presentada al Consejo Nacional de Enseñanza, p. LXXIII. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1929.

³Ibid., p. LXXIV.

Thus, as was the case in Argentina, the primary schools in Uruguay were modeled after those in the United States, largely through the influence of one outstanding individual.

All of the foreign influences mentioned above were grafted on to those inherited by the young republics from Spain. The influence of the latter nation, as the source from which came the first colonists and the original foundations of the social order, was to endure chiefly in the language and the religion of these growing countries. The power and prestige of the mother country declined continually after the colonies had won their independence, and, while the newly-born nations occasionally got ideas and practices from Spain, they more often looked to the progressive nations for examples and guidance.

During the present century Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay have made much progress economically, socially, and culturally. Their people have become proud of their accomplishments, and they no longer feel an urgent need for adopting foreign practices in education. While they all take an active interest in what is being done in the rest of the world in matters pertaining to education, they no longer imitate foreign models.

Since 1939 these nations have been almost removed from the European sphere, and at the same time they have become more vitally concerned with the United States, which, in turn, has taken more interest in the Latin American nations. In 1942, for example, out of 361 foreigners appointed under the auspices of the Institute of International Education, 290 were Latin Americans studying in the United States.¹ An indication of the growth

¹ Twenty-Third Annual Report of the Director of the Institute of International Education, p. 16. New York: 1942.

of Latin American interest in the education and culture of the United States during recent year is given by figures showing the number of Latin American students enrolled in colleges and universities in the United States. In 1913-14 there were 43 Argentinians, 12 Chileans, and 2 Uruguayans studying in higher institutions in the United States; in 1938-39 there were 27 Argentinians, 19 Chileans, and 5 Uruguayans in such schools; and in 1941-42 the respective numbers were 65 Argentinians, 90 Chileans, and 13 Uruguayans.¹ The chief cause of the upsurge in the latter year was probably the war and its attendant restrictions on travel.

In the future, the United States seems destined to play an increasing part in the culture of the other nations in this hemisphere.

¹Ibid., p. 47.

CHAPTER V

SOCIAL FORCES AFFECTING THE GROWTH OF EDUCATION

The development of education in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay was hindered by the civil strife, turmoil, and wars which ensued upon casting aside the Spanish yoke. The people in these countries followed any ambitious, appealing leader who excited their admiration, and the result was chaos.

In Chile, the social and political conditions were stabilized before those in Argentina and Uruguay, the nation winning independence in 1818 and formulating a stable constitution in 1833. In Argentina, however, rivalry between the people in Buenos Aires and those in the other parts of the nation, and the readiness of the rough gauchos to fight at any time, caused internal dissension and strife which led to the dictatorship of Juan Manuel de Rosas. The latter ruled Argentina with an iron hand, exterminating all opposition, from 1829 to 1852; his domination was a blight on education and culture. Argentina secured a constitution as a federal republic in 1853, the various provinces being granted rights similar to the rights of the different states in the United States, but strife continued until 1880. Uruguay broke away from Spain in 1810, but was made subject to Brazil in 1821. In 1825 Uruguay won its independence from Brazil, but it was a bone of contention between the latter and Argentina until 1828, when, through the mediation of Great Britain, it was established as an independent nation. It adopted a constitution in 1830.

The heterogeneous nature of the population in these countries was an important factor in the political and social confusion, and it retarded the growth of education. The lack of adequate means of transportation and communication also prevented cultural advancement. The numerous wars and insurrections depleted the scant resources of these young nations, leaving little that could be devoted to education.

Public indifference also hampered the development of education. Describing Argentine education in the decade before and after 1820, Levillier states:¹

The epoch was essentially materialistic. The immense majority of the people saw no advantage in education. . . . By weakness of heart and lightness of spirit, the parents destroyed at home the precepts of discipline learned at school. . . . The children grew up like wild plants. . . . Children left school as ignorant as they entered, even in the higher schools. . . . There was a lack of serious studies very evident in the writings left at that epoch. . . . Rivadavia [President of Argentina] wished to promote education, but the will of the masses was not ripe or appreciative.

Evidently there was little change in public attitude toward education during most of the century, because the same author expressed this judgment of Argentine culture in the 1880's:²

They [the leaders in education] knew that the people could raise themselves to the spirit of superior institutions only by raising the mental level. . . . But this vision was not held by the students of the schools, colleges, or universities. . . . Nothing existed to excite them to study. The parents ignored the role of spiritual directors; the teachers themselves were often amateurs, often without knowledge of their calling, or even general culture. . . . The adolescents, leaving college, lived in idleness, or sought places in legations and in politics. . . . People would not undertake the reading of books; they read only newspapers. . . .

The above descriptions, written by a Frenchman, may be

¹Robert Levillier, Les Origines Argentines, pp. 242 ff. Paris: Charpentier et Fasquelle, 1912.

²Ibid., pp. 297-99.

objective and impartial. The indifference and lethargy of the people was often complained of in the writings of native Argentinians, and there is no doubt but that it seriously hampered the spreading and improvement of education in all of the Latin American countries.

In Chile, the development of primary schools for the common people was hindered by the attitude of the higher social groups, who saw no reason for educating the masses of the people, and who felt that education was a privilege of the well-to-do.¹ This aristocratic notion of education persisted in Chile for many years, and it is still present to a considerable extent. The same class prejudice worked against common education in all the Latin-American countries; it was not so much of a deterrent in Argentina and Uruguay, however, as it was in Chile.

In spite of all these obstacles, however, education for the masses of the people finally became a reality as a result of a number of constructive forces, the most important of which will now be analyzed.

The need for education under a republican form of government. - It was recognized in all three countries - Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay - that education for everybody was necessary in a self-governing society. Schools were the common concern of all political parties.² It was felt that schools were more necessary in the newly created republics than in older, stabilized countries because of their value in creating a social unity,³ and

¹Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 147.

²Levillier, op. cit., pp. 295 f.

³Ibid.

that education of the people would be a means of social control. The school was looked upon as the complement of the home; it was from these two sources that social currents arose; in them, the future of the nation was prepared.¹

The Presidents of Argentina, from the earliest days of the republic, expressed a desire to promote education. Other civic leaders and statesmen professed the same idea. However, their desires and promises often exceeded actual accomplishments. When one considers the serious obstacles which the leaders faced in the newly founded republics, it is easy to understand why educational progress was slow.

On May 18, 1825 the Governor of Buenos Aires province, who controlled most of Argentina at that time, stated:²

To combat ignorance, a considerable number of primary schools have been established in the city and in the country.

After Rosas had been driven from power in Argentina in 1852, President Justo José Urquiza stated in his message to the Argentine Congress:³

Public instruction and culture will seriously be brought to your attention, since they are the fundamental base of all social order, according to the convictions of experience.

In his message as President of Argentina, in July, 1871, Sarmiento very aptly remarked that the demand for education was inversely proportional to its necessity - the people who need it most are the ones who ask for it least, and vice versa; his

¹ República Argentina, Debates Parlamentarios sobre Instrucción Pública, p. 704. Buenos Aires: Ministerio de Justicia y Instrucción Pública, 1904.

² República Argentina, Los Mensajes - Historia del Desarrollo de la Nación Argentina, 1810-1910, Vol. I, p. 218. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de la Compañía General de Fósforos, 1910.

³ Ibid., Vol. III, p. 9.

formula is as true today as it was then.¹

In more recent times, the message of President Hipolito Irigoyen on May 16, 1918 stated:²

To resolve the problems of education is fundamental for the life and institutional progress of the republic, principally that of primary education, as the essence and supreme good of democracy.

These messages of the various Presidents of Argentina indicate the interest which they had in education. While their hopes and desires in the field of education were not always fulfilled, they at least professed their faith in the benefits of more and better schools.

In addition to public statements on the merits of education by the Presidents of Argentina, there are arguments for schools in the speeches of other important leaders in that nation, of which the following is very revealing:³

We cannot wonder that every state, whether its form of government is monarchical or republican.... should, with zealous care, watch over the education of the rising generation - that men may become familiar with the genius and particular features of their own government, form an acquaintance with the laws and institutions of the country in which they live, and act their part, and that they may imbibe a spirit of enlightened patriotism securing them alike from the encroachment of the tyrant on the one hand, and the selfish designs of the demagogue on the other.

It is evident that the leaders of the nation saw that education was necessary in order to enable the people to govern themselves intelligently and to establish a sound society. The ignorance which prevailed during the early days of the republic was one of the causes of the disorder which hindered the development of the nation. Uneducated people could not be good or

¹ Ibid., Vol. III, pp. 326 f.

² República Argentina, Congreso Nacional, Diario de Sesiones de la Cámara de Senadores, Año 1918, p. 9. Buenos Aires: 1919.

³ República Argentina, Report Upon the State of Education in the Argentine Republic, p. 6. La Plata: Talleres del Museo, 1893.

useful citizens. They were likely to become the unwitting tools of scheming politicians and adventurers, defeating the purpose of democratic rule by blindly voting for any upstart who promised favors or pecuniary rewards. Ignorance led to credulity, and the latter, though innocent in itself, could be the agent of social and political wickedness.

The value of education as a means for creating a stable and prosperous society was recognized in Chile also. Thus, on August 8, 1840, the Minister of Education, Mariano de Egaña, stated:¹

Primary education forms the morals and customs of the people.... It is the duty of the government to foster it.

In the same message, Minister Egaña stressed the necessity of educating the isolated groups of Indians living within the country, in order to make them a genuine part of the Chilean state. (The government of Chile paid forty pesos annually to each Indian chief who maintained a school in his mission, providing the school had twelve or more students.)

On June 24, 1842, another minister of education, who was to exert a powerful influence on behalf of education in Chile - Manuel Montt - expressed this sentiment:²

To educate the people is not only demanded by the public good - it is a duty of strict justice.... Using the same system and methods, primary education will be made uniform; and, extending the same idea and principle, we will make of our population, as far as possible, a homogeneous whole.

It is plain that one of the chief purposes of education as conceived by Minister of Education Montt was the moulding of

¹ República de Chile, Documentos Parlamentarios, Discursos de Apertura en las Sesiones del Congreso, Vol. I, p. 222. Santiago: Imprenta del Ferrocarril, 1858.

² Ibid., p. 32.

the people into an intelligent social and political whole, which was necessary in order to maintain a stable, orderly republic.

In his message on July 31, 1843 Minister Montt gave this reason for encouraging education:¹

Primary education merits the attention of the supreme authority....because it is the principal agent in improving this mass of people, which forms the largest part of our society, and from which we should drive out ignorance.

The message of President Frederico Errázuriz to the Chilean Congress on June 1, 1872 stated:²

The government has considered as one of its supreme and most important duties the improvement and encouragement of education in all of its branches.

Education was regarded as a means of strengthening the social order and of enabling the people to exercise their rights and duties as intelligent citizens. It must be remembered that the democratic concept of government was not so strong in Chile as in Argentina, and that the government of Chile was in the hands of an aristocratic oligarchy for a considerable time, despite the republican form of government.

In Uruguay, the outstanding leader in education was José Pedro Varela; he awakened the people to the advantages of education and to its absolute necessity in a democracy. He showed that education increased the happiness and power of the individual and the nation, and also reduced criminality and vice.³

The preamble to a law creating a tax for the support of education in Uruguay, dated August 24, 1877, stated:⁴

¹Ibid., p. 153.

²República de Chile, Discurso de su Excelencia el Presidente de la República, Santiago: Imprenta Nacional, 1872.

³Araujo, op. cit., pp. 386 ff.

⁴República Oriental del Uruguay, Legislación Escolar de la República Oriental del Uruguay, pp. 16 f. Montevideo: Imprenta de "La Correspondencia", 1889.

....Because it is an incontrovertible fact that the development of public instruction is the most powerful element for the conservation of peace and the moral and material prosperity of the State, since instructing the people prepares them to know their duties and their rights; and because the Constitution of the Republic makes illiteracy a ground for the suspension of citizenship....

The necessity for the individual to know his part in a democracy was realized in Uruguay, as well as in Argentina and Chile. Other arguments supporting education in Uruguay stated:

The primary school holds the life of the future.¹

The orientation of society has its necessary origin in the schools.²

The unique base of democracy is in general culture.³

We can conclude that in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, one of the most powerful forces creating a demand for public education was the need for an enlightened citizenry, who would know their civic duties and rights under the republican forms of government which had been established. The future leaders in these countries had to come from the people living there, and education would provide training not only for such possible future leaders, but also for the other citizens whose cooperation would be needed in creating a sound, smooth-running society. This force on behalf of education came from the cultural leaders in these nations, who saw the need for knowledge; the inarticulate masses of the people, whom education was designed to benefit, had very little to do with its encouragement or development, at least in the beginning stages, either because of indifference or helplessness.

¹República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente a los Años 1909 y 1910, pp. 22 f. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos A. Barreiro y Ramos, 1910.

²Ibid., p. 461.

³Ibid., p. 549.

The need of education for the development of national resources. - In all countries, education has been found necessary in order to cope with the environment and to make life easier and more comfortable. Education and training are needed in producing goods and in carrying on trade. As the national economy has become more advanced and complex, the need of education has been accentuated. The need for education which would contribute to the economic welfare was felt in the new nations of America, where there were many rich resources awaiting skilled hands which would develop them and thus increase the wealth and prosperity of the people.

One of Sarmiento's arguments on behalf of education was that education enabled a workman to become more efficient and to earn more than an untrained or ignorant worker. He ascribed the high standards of living of American workers, in the United States, to the benefits of common education which reached all of the people.¹ During his presidency, on May 15, 1870, he indicated in a congressional message the adjustment of education to fit the requirements of the country at that time:²

In this year we have given more practical tendency to the teaching in colleges, relating them to industries which are prevalent in those districts, in order to make education more accessible to a greater number and more applicable to the ordinary necessities of life.

Other leaders in Argentina had put forth practical arguments for education. One of these men described the kind of education that was needed in these words:³

Education, to be fruitful, should teach commerce,

¹ Domingo F. Sarmiento, Educación Popular, pp. 39 f. Buenos Aires: J. Roldán, 1915.

² República Argentina, Los Mensajes....., Vol. III, p. 313.

³ Ibid., Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza..., pp. 404 f.

sciences, practical things, useful things, living languages. The South American man should be of the type to overcome the desert, the backwardness of the country, and the natural brutality....

Complaint was made in 1852 that the native Argentinians were not trained in business or engineering, which made it impossible for them to exploit the natural wealth of Argentina.¹ While higher schools in Argentina were teaching the classics, it was held that Greek and Latin were unnecessary:²

In a new country, where all kinds of progress are being made, rather than needing literary men and doctors, the people need men prepared for industry.

It is clear that the needs of growing industry and the practice of agriculture required educated workers. Technicians had to be imported from foreign countries to do the work which the native Argentinians had not been trained to do. Sarmiento urged common education as a means of raising the capacity and productiveness of the laboring classes, and other educational leaders urged schools for the same reason. Many special schools sprang up in response to the needs of the country, such as industrial schools, commercial schools, and schools of agriculture and cattle raising. The aversion to manual labor was common to most of the upper classes in Latin America, and even to the average citizen in most Latin American nations. This aversion had to be overcome before native citizens would do the technical work required for the advancement of the country.

In Chile, at an early date it was realized that education was necessary for the development of the nation in an economic and material sense. Industry, as well as public morality

¹República Argentina, Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza...., pp. 406 f.

²Ibid., pp. 254, 506.

and social stability, required educated people; in the words of Silvestre Achagavia, Chilean Minister of Education in 1854, we find an expression of this:¹

The lack of schools and of education causes the inferiority of our means of production and the backwardness of our industry. Order and public morality lack the support which they should have from citizens who know their duties. With these convictions, the government gives constant attention to the development and improvement of primary education.

In the response to the needs of the country, schools for artisans were founded in 1850 and in the following years. In 1850 alone there were created nine such schools, four of them in Santiago. In 1851, night courses in arithmetic, geometry, drawing, and technical subjects were given at these schools. In 1858, a school of mines was founded at Copiapó, which has continued to the present day.²

Showing adjustment of education to the needs of the nation is the statement of President Jorje Montt, in 1895:³

The organization and diffusion of technical education has been promoted by the government, since it constitutes one of the most effective elements for helping the development and progress of industry.

Thus, the need for education which would help to develop the resources of the nation was a strong factor in Chile's school development.

Similar forces were at work in Uruguay. Illustrating the adaptation of schools to fit the needs of the environment and current conditions, a school of commerce was founded in 1829⁴

¹República de Chile, Documentos Parlamentarios...., Vol. V, p. 99.

²Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 158.

³República de Chile, Discurso de su Excelencia...., 1895.

⁴República Oriental del Uruguay, Anales de Instrucción Primaria, Tomo XXXII, p. 10. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1932.

at Montevideo. Upon the occasion of its opening, the director, Miguel Forteza, said:¹

This capital has always been a purely mercantile place.... and it will continue to increase in this respect.... Children need knowledge that will help them to become good merchants.

The reason for fostering education put forth by the Society of the Friends of Popular Education, founded in Montevideo in 1868, were:²

....So that every one should be a center of production and riches, and of intelligent resistance against brusque social movements and instigations against the government.

Here we see a conservative tendency in promoting education, one that would promote social stability and support for the government, as well as the desire to increase the wealth of the nation. The Society of the Friends of Popular Education was one of the chief forces that prepared the way for a common school system in Uruguay.

In the arguments of José Pedro Varela in support of common education, the wealth producing element was not lost sight of either, although general culture was the most prominent goal.³

We have evidence, then, that the economic motive was strong in promoting the development of education in the three countries mentioned. In addition to the citations of statements of leaders, and the professed policies of presidents and other high authorities, one can be certain that many lesser people were urging education as a means of promoting wealth, even though they were not of the type to be interested in general culture.

¹ Ibid.

² Araujo, op. cit., p. 385.

³ Ibid., pp. 386 f.

The need for education in the assimilation of immigrants.-

Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay all desired immigrants, especially from Europe, who would populate and develop their sparsely settled territories. This immigration, however, presented an educational and social problem. The immigrants had to be assimilated in the society of these countries in such a way that they would become good citizens, and this required education.

Educational opportunity was offered by Argentina as a means of encouraging immigration.¹ Also to encourage immigrants, especially from Northern Europe where there were many Protestants, the Argentine Congress, after much debate, refrained from making compulsory the teaching of the Catholic religion in the Law of Common Education of 1884.²

In regard to immigrants and their education for citizenship, a member of the Argentine Congress stated in 1883:³

A new country, sparsely populated, needs to hunt in civilized Europe.... from where daily come immigrants to increase the population of our cities and to populate our beautiful campos, and to make this republic what it should be - one of the first of South America.... These elements which come to us can not be assimilated in our weak civilization.... That is a problem - how to assimilate them. I believe that the most adequate, most safe manner to solve this problem without commotion, without violence, is the organization of common education such as this law establishes....

¹ A law of June 28, 1866 provided that repayments by colonists for free transportation to Argentina should go into a special fund, the income from which was to be spent on the education of the children of the colonists, public works, and "other means of encouraging immigration." See Alexis Peyret, Une Visite aux Colonies de la République Argentine, p. 184. Paris: Imprimerie de P. Mouillot, 1889.

² The argument was: "The doors of the republic would remain closed; no immigrant goes to a country in which, as a first condition, the law imposes for his children a determined religion." See República Argentina, Debates Parlamentarios..., p. 433.

³ Ibid., pp. 959 ff.

Education was thus considered a powerful and effective means of promoting social unity among the various types of immigrants arriving in the country.

Another phase of the task set for education in the assimilation of immigrants was described as follows:¹

The nation must protect itself from undesirable modifications which the immigrants might cause. It is necessary to introduce history and geography of Argentina, and civic instruction, because the school is the pacific melting place of various creeds and traditional politics....

Because of the large number of immigrants coming to Argentina and the other countries in the Americas, the part played by public education in molding these people into a new society was extremely important. Chile and Uruguay found public education necessary for the assimilation of immigrants, as did Argentina; the problem of absorbing immigrants was less important in Chile than in Argentina or Uruguay, in that relatively few people migrated to this country because of its geographical isolation.

¹República Argentina, Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza..., p. 289.

CHAPTER VI

THE DEVELOPMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

The preceding chapter shows that, as a result of various forces, schools for all of the people began to appear necessary in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, and education became a concern of the government. The establishment of public schools in a systematic way and on a nation-wide basis was largely due to the initiative of the national governments in these countries; the provinces and local governing bodies did little to assist in the setting up of a public school system. Just as the cultural and political leaders of the nations saw the need for education and encouraged it before the general public appreciated it, so the national governments fostered education before the provincial and local governments did very much to promote it. There is a similarity in this development from the top down, in the scale of governmental authority, to the systematic establishment of universities before that of elementary schools.

When these nations began to consider the establishment of a large number of new schools in order to provide education for all of the children, they found that it was first necessary to secure teachers for these schools. Consequently, as one of the first steps in the establishment of a national system of public education, these countries created and fostered normal schools.

The development of normal schools proceeded with varying success in the different countries, and had a distinct history in each. For that reason, separate treatment will be given to the

schools in each of the three nations.

In Argentina. - The creation of a nation-wide system of normal schools was the principal work of Sarmiento, in the decade following 1870. Previously, there had been a normal school set up by the Beneficent Society in 1855. Under the presidency of Bartolomé Mitre, another normal school was opened in 1865; this one lasted until 1871. In 1869, normal school departments were established in connection with the national colleges at Corrientes and Concepción.¹

But it was not until after Sarmiento had returned from a visit to the United States, in 1868, that the movement to create normal schools throughout the entire nation got under way. Sarmiento believed that the future of the nation lay in the education of the common people, and that the prosperity and happiness of the nation and of the individuals depended on education. He realized that an extensive system of schools was necessary in order to provide this education, and that such a system required large numbers of well-trained and competent teachers. Having seen the benefits of education in the United States, he decided to foster and develop a comprehensive, nation-wide system of public schools in Argentina - one that would serve all of the people in the nation. Accordingly, he set to work immediately upon his return to Argentina, and in the course of several years he had established the basis of the normal schools - the first requisite in the educational system of the nation.

¹Horacio C. Rivarola, Legislación Escolar y Ciencia de la Educación, p. 330. Buenos Aires: Imprenta Lopez, 1936.

The Beneficent Society was organized in Buenos Aires in the early 1820's to care for orphans and poor children; it provided primary education for the general public and was considered the principal agency in this field, outside of the Church schools, for several decades.

In 1870 the first distinct normal school in Argentina was founded at Paraná through the efforts of Sarmiento; it began operating in 1871. This school received men and women students, being known as a "mixed" normal school. It was directed by Dr. George Stearns, a famous educator secured from the United States for the purpose of instituting its methods and practices in Argentine education.¹

A number of other normal schools were established during the presidential administration of Sarmiento (1868-74) and his immediate successors. Some of these, designated as "Normal Schools for Maestros", gave courses ranging in length from two to four years and prepared teachers for the elementary schools of the nation. Others, called "Normal Schools for Profesores", offered courses which prepared students for teaching in secondary schools.²

At least twenty women teachers were secured from the United States during the period from 1870 to 1886. Upon arriving in Argentina, they were sent to the normal school at Paraná in order to learn the language of the country; upon leaving this school, they became teachers in the elementary schools and in some cases directors of normal schools.³ It was principally through the normal schools that the influence of the United States was introduced into the educational system of Argentina.

In 1875 a law was enacted in Argentina authorizing the

¹Rivarola, op. cit., p. 330; República Argentina, Memoria....1874, p. 157.

²República Argentina, Report Upon the State of Secondary and Normal Education in the Argentine Republic, pp. 27 ff.

³República Argentina, Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza...., pp. 25, 584 f. This source states (p. 243) that the normal schools for women were directed by women teachers especially contracted for in the United States.

establishment of a normal school in the capital of every province.¹ Another law in 1885 authorized the establishment of a normal school for women teachers in the capital of every province that desired it, provided that the site for the school was satisfactory.² The government even went so far as to pay the expenses for students attending normal schools, in some cases.³ The latter practice was common also in Chile and Uruguay, indicating the strong interest which the national governments took in promoting the training of teachers, and showing that education was a national concern, meriting the expenditure of government funds.⁴

In the decade between 1870 and 1880, eleven normal schools were founded in Argentina; between 1880 and 1890, twenty-three more.⁵ Of the total of thirty-four founded up to 1890, thirteen were for men, fourteen were for women, and seven were mixed.⁶ But in the decade between 1890 and 1900, only four new normal schools were founded; evidently the country had enough for a while. Then there was an upsurge resulting in thirty-nine new normal schools between 1900 and 1910, paralleling the rise in school attendance which set in during that interval. Between 1910 and 1920, twenty-three more were founded, bringing the total to about a hundred, some of the schools having been discontinued or consolidated.⁷ (In 1921, the number of normal schools operating was listed as eighty-five.) In 1880, the number of students enrolled in these

¹ República Argentina, Memoria.... 1910, p. 11.

² Zubiaur, op. cit., p. 38.

³ República Argentina, ibid.

⁴ This policy was continued for several decades.

⁵ República Argentina, Memoria.... 1921-2, cuadro 62.

⁶ Ibid., Report upon the State of Secondary and Normal Education in the Argentine Republic, pp. 26 ff. La Plata: Talleres del Museo, 1893.

⁷ Ibid., Memoria.... 1921-2, cuadro 62.

schools was approximately five hundred; in 1920, over fourteen thousand.¹ This remarkable growth is an indication of the progress made in public education in Argentina, since most of these students became teachers in public schools. However, many boys and girls attended these schools in order to get more advanced education than that provided in the elementary schools.

It should be noted that up to 1890 there were about as many normal schools for men as for women. Evidently, it was supposed that there would be as many men teachers as women. As time passed, the percentage of men in the teaching profession in the nation steadily declined. The normal schools for men decreased in number and in importance, while those for women prospered.² An explanation of the popularity of normal schools for women lies in the fact that such schools were almost the only institutions where women could obtain education on the secondary level, while men could attend the colegios and universities as well as the numerous secondary schools.

As the normal schools increased in numbers they also lengthened their courses. Thus, after the first normal schools for elementary teachers had started with two-year courses, they increased ~~these~~ to three years in 1880, and to four years in 1886. The normal schools for Profesores, which had five-year courses in 1880, increased them to six years in 1886;³ in 1905 the course in the National Institute for Secondary Teachers, organized at that time, was planned to comprise seven years. Lengths of courses in schools for elementary and secondary teachers are

¹ Ibid., cuadro 67.

² República Argentina, Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza..., p. 628

³ Ibid., p. 309.

four years and seven years, respectively, at the present time.

During the early days of the normal schools, in the 1880's, only boys over sixteen years of age, and girls over fourteen, were admitted.¹ Later the age limits were lowered, because students graduated from the elementary schools at the age of twelve or thirteen, and had to spend several years in idleness before being able to enter the normal schools. At the higher normal schools, or those for Profesores, students were paid twenty-five pesos monthly by the government while they were in school, on condition that they would teach at least two years after being graduated.²

Despite the fact that the normal schools admitted students only upon their graduation from the elementary schools, it was found necessary to give elementary instruction at the normal schools for the incoming students who were insufficiently trained to carry on their studies in the normal schools; this condition existed until 1886 or later.³

Attached to the normal schools for elementary teachers were practice schools attended by elementary school pupils; these were called "Schools of Application". These schools provided actual teaching experience for the normal school students, such practice teaching usually lasting for two years.

The enthusiasm with which Sarmiento and some of his successors created and fostered normal schools was not always sustained. Perhaps the establishment of normal schools in some

¹Ibid., Report upon the State....., pp. 33 ff.

²Ibid., pp. 34 f.

³Ibid., Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza...., p. 248.

places had been unwise, and perhaps too many normal schools had been established in proportion to the rest of the school system.¹ Whatever the reason, the growth of normal schools slowed up considerably in the decade from 1890 to 1900. In his message to the Argentine Congress in May, 1888, President Celman stated his belief that the nation had enough normal schools, each province having one for men and one for women.² After 1900, the normal schools resumed their rapid growth, as is indicated by the figures given previously (p. 67).

Some of the provinces of Argentina have set up normal schools of their own. Lack of cooperation between these normal schools and those operated by the national government is indicated by the fact that the graduates of the provincial normal schools are not permitted to teach in the elementary schools operated by the national government, and by the refusal of the national normal schools to grant credit for work done in the provincial normal schools.³

The development of the normal schools in Argentina and the beginning of a nation-wide system of elementary education in that country was the chief contribution of Sarmiento, the educator and statesman. It is an example of the encouragement and extension of public education by a far-sighted and understanding leader who was supported by governmental authority, rather than by any popular action of the masses of common people who were to be benefited most by education.

¹Ibid., p. 522.

²República Argentina, Los Mensajes...., Vol. IV, p. 253.

³Austin F. Macdonald, The Government of the Argentine Republic, pp. 329 ff. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1942.

In Chile. - The first normal school in South America was opened in Santiago, Chile, on June 14, 1842.¹ It owed its creation largely to the efforts of Sarmiento, who at that time was living in Chile as an exile from his native land, Argentina, where he had fallen into disfavor with the government of the dictator Rosas. Sarmiento served as the director of this school from its founding until 1845, at which time he was sent to Europe by the Chilean government in order to learn the best pedagogical methods; he also visited the schools in the United States. He returned to Chile in 1848, with suggestions for the improvement of the schools.²

At this pioneer normal school, which most likely had a small student body, Sarmiento and an assistant, Ignacio Acuna, were in charge. The school gave a three-year course, in which the content subjects and one dealing with methods of teaching were given. At the time, the primary schools of Chile were in a very bad state, the teachers themselves barely knowing how to read and write, and, in the words of Manuel Montt, there was systematic disorder.³ The creation of the normal school was intended to correct such conditions.

The first plan of studies for the normal schools of Chile was established by a government decree of February, 1848, dividing instruction into three years, and providing every normal school which might be founded with a practice school, or "School of Application".⁴

¹República de Chile, Rol Estadístico de las Escuelas Normales i Primarias de la República, p. iii. Santiago de Chile, Imprenta Universitaria, 1910.

²Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., pp. 113-15.

³Ibid.

⁴República de Chile, op. cit., p. iv.

Upon his return to Chile from Europe and the United States in 1848, Sarmiento continued his teaching and also wrote a number of books dealing with education. One of his ideas was that all the instruction given in the Chilean schools should be incorporated into a single system, so that pupils could pass from the primary school to the secondary school, and from the latter to the university - a ladder system. However, his suggestion was not carried out. Chile was an aristocratic country, and the system of parallel schools - one for the common people and the other for the upper classes - continued until late in the twentieth century.¹ Sarmiento's ideas did not have much effect on Chilean education; those of the scholarly Bello were taken up instead, tending to foster an aristocratic idea in education. Bello was more interested in secondary education; it was in this branch that Chile was to make the most progress for the greater part of the nineteenth century.

On January 5, 1854 the first normal school for women was opened in Chile, also in the city of Santiago. It began to function in March of the same year, under the direction of the Sisters of the Sacred Heart, of whose educational establishment it formed a part for many years.²

On March 9, 1854, a government decree set up a new plan of studies for the normal schools, in which greater emphasis was given to the content studies and to the teaching of music and physical education.³ On November 24, 1860, a law specified the subjects which should be taught in the normal schools. On

¹In 1927 a single system of primary schools was begun, in an attempt to eliminate the two-class idea in society.

²República de Chile, op. cit., p. iv.

³Ibid.

December 18, 1863 the normal school course was lengthened to four years; in 1886 the course was increased to five years.¹

Evidently the normal schools developed slowly in Chile, there being only three of them in 1886.²

In March, 1885 Chile secured fourteen women teachers for the normal schools from Germany;³ for some years afterward all the teachers in the normal schools were Germans.⁴

The necessity of preparing a competent teaching force for the elementary schools led the Chilean government to create some new normal schools, as those in existence were not sufficient; as a result, three more normal schools were founded before 1900, making a total of six normal schools; in 1902 the number of normal schools began to increase rapidly, and by 1906 there were sixteen normal schools in the nation.⁵ This number did not change materially after that time, there being fifteen normal schools in 1928, at which time a reorganization movement effected the consolidation of these fifteen into six, in accordance with a plan of creating pedagogical seminaries in which the training of teachers would be similar to university work.⁶ In 1936 there were eight normal schools of the older type remaining, in addition to two private normal schools; the total attendance in that year was 1,378 students, with approximately 220 graduates.⁷

¹Ibid. In 1927 the course was lengthened to six years.

²Ibid.

³Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 199.

⁴Vargas, op. cit., p. 7.

⁵República de Chile, Rol Estadístico...., p. iv.

⁶Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., pp. 198 f.

⁷Ibid.

Admission to the normal schools is on a selective basis. A distribution of scholarships is made by the national government among the provinces and departments of the nation. Students are then selected according to their records in the elementary schools, and upon recommendation of the director of the school. The students selected are then given medical, dental, and other tests of a physical nature, and also a test in musical ability. Upon passing in all of these, the students are admitted to the normal school on a probationary basis for one year; if they do well in the first year in normal school, they are finally considered as bona fide students. The girls must be at least thirteen years old in order to gain admission, and boys must be sixteen.¹

Between 1886 and 1891 a school for the training of teachers in the secondary schools (liceos) was organized; it came to be known as the Pedagogical Institute. It operated in conjunction with the University of Chile, and had a four-year course.² There were one hundred twenty-six men and two hundred twenty-four women attending this institute in 1935.³

As in Argentina, students in the normal schools were paid by the government, enabling them to maintain themselves at no personal cost.⁴

Comparing the development of normal schools in Chile with those in Argentina, it is seen that although the former country founded its first normal school about thirty years before

¹Ibid., p. 299.

²Vargas, op. cit., p. 8; República de Chile, op. cit., pv.

³República de Chile, Dirección General de Estadística, Anuario Estadístico de Chile, Año 1935, Política, Administración, Justicia y Educación, p. 157, cuadro 132. Santiago: 1936.

⁴República de Chile, Rol Estadístico, p. iv.

the first normal school was founded in Argentina, the normal schools in Argentina grew much faster than those in Chile. Thus, while there were forty-one normal schools in Argentina in 1900, there were only six in Chile in that year; in 1921 there were eighty-five normal schools in Argentina but only sixteen in Chile. This difference is not explained by the relative populations of the two nations, because the population of Argentina was only about twice that of Chile during the period under consideration. It can be accounted for by a lack of emphasis on elementary education in Chile and by a preponderance of attention given to this branch of education in Argentina. Chile was an aristocratic nation, while Argentina was inclined to be democratic. Consequently, Chile gave more attention to cultural and educational leaders such as Bello, who evinced interest mainly in secondary and higher education; Argentina, on the other hand, had a greater liking for the democratic doctrines and practices of Sarmiento, who stressed elementary education.

Another point of difference in the development of normal schools in these two countries was the influence of foreign nations. Argentina was strongly influenced by the United States; Chile, on the other hand, adopted German methods in education and secured a number of German teachers for her schools.

In Uruguay. - In 1882 legislation in Uruguay provided for the establishment of normal school internships for men and women in the city of Montevideo.¹ The course lasted two years; at the end of this training, the graduate was required to teach in the schools of the nation for at least two years. The entrance age was sixteen years for boys and thirteen for girls. Strict

¹República Oriental del Uruguay, Legislación Escolar...., pp. 282 ff.

rules were made for the behavior and conduct of the students.

At the time when these internships were established, it was provided that three boys and three girls should be selected from each province or department of the nation. The internees received money for subsistence while attending the normal school, free tuition, and free books and other school supplies.¹

In December, 1882 a government decree set aside certain land belonging to the national university as a site for a normal school building.² Only one additional normal school was established in Uruguay for a number of years; only two normal schools were mentioned in a report for 1900, one of them being for men and the other for women.³

In 1900, normal schools were considered unnecessary for the time being, because there were many qualified teachers in the nation who were not engaged in teaching; consequently, these schools were closed. The money saved by this measure was allotted for salaries of newly appointed school inspectors.⁴

The training in the normal schools was criticized as too academic, with a lack of practical instruction in the art of teaching; this was given as another reason for closing them.⁵ In 1908, after they had been re-opened, they were again criticized because of their routine and mechanical methods; they were

¹Ibid.

²Ibid., p. 214.

³República Oriental del Uruguay, Instrucción Primaria Pública, Mensaje Proyecto de Ley Sobre Reformas a la Ley Vigente y Reorganización de la Enseñanza, p. 23. Montevideo: Imprenta "La Nación", 1900.

⁴Ibid., p. 21.

⁵República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente al Año 1908, Tomo I, pp. 359 f. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos A. Barreiro y Ramos, 1910.

also criticized for overloading the students with work and thereby injuring their health.¹

Largely because of its small size and population, Uruguay has not developed a large number of normal schools; its relatively greater density of population and more compact form have made it possible for a few normal schools to accommodate the students of the entire nation. (It should be remembered, in comparing Uruguay with Argentina, or with Chile, that Uruguay is only one-fifteenth the size of the former, and one-fourth the size of the latter; the population of Uruguay is about one-seventh that of Argentina, and a little more than one-third that of Chile.) In 1929, there were two normal schools in Montevideo; one of these, for men, had sixty-three students, while the other, for women, had nine hundred thirty-three students. There were two other normal schools in the interior of the country. These schools give two-year courses.²

In all these countries - Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay - normal schools have received recognition as the base of the elementary school system, which could not function without a sufficient number of adequately trained teachers. All of these countries have considered the teacher as the most important element in the school, and have taken care to provide a selected group of youth for training in the normal schools. All have subsidized the students in the normal schools, considering that public education was a duty of the nation and that the training of teachers merited the expenditure of government funds.

¹ Ibid., p. 360.

² La Unión Panamericana, La Educación Pública en el Uruguay, p. 6. Educación, No. 51, Mayo de 1929. Washington: La Unión Panamericana, 1929.

CHAPTER VII

SCHOOL LEGISLATION

Education in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay was not organized on a definite basis until after these nations had settled their internal troubles and disputes over political and social questions, and had developed stable governments. While the constitutions of all three countries made some general reference to public education, no definite legal basis for education was established until many years after the beginning of constitutional government.

The provisions relating to education in the constitutions of these nations indicate that education was a concern of the national governments, in contrast with the situation in the United States, where the absence of any provision regarding education in its constitution indicates that education was not considered an affair of the national government, but a matter to be taken care of by the states. For several decades after constitutional government had been established in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, the presidents of these nations, through their ministers of education, issued decrees regulating education. The growth of the schools, which was accelerated after the normal schools had begun to provide an increasing number of teachers, made it necessary to enact definite laws and regulations concerning education, which differed somewhat in these three nations.

Argentina. - The constitution of Argentina, which was put into effect in 1853, made the following provisions regarding

education:¹

Each province shall frame a constitution to insure primary education. (Article 5)

Every one shall have the right to teach and to learn. (Article 14)

Congress shall have the power to provide for the general welfare by establishing plans of general and university instruction. (Article 67, section 16)

An overlapping of authority resulted from the provisions of Articles 5 and 67. According to the former, primary education was to be provided by the provinces; according to the latter, Congress had the power and the authority to establish plans for general education, which obviously might include primary education. Furthermore, the mere fact that the provinces were ordered to insure primary education did not exclude the national government from establishing schools in these provinces if it decided to do so. As a matter of fact, the national government has set up its own system of elementary schools throughout Argentina under the Lainez Law of 1904; today, the national government operates as many primary schools as the provinces do. Although the original constitution has been modified several times, these conflicting provisions still hold, and even today are the subject of controversy between the provinces and the national government.

The national government has used its authority to intervene in the educational affairs of the provinces - the poorer provinces especially - where elementary schools have been inadequate or non-existent. The view of the national government was that, while primary education was a responsibility of the local governments, the education of the people was also a national

¹Agustín de Vedia, *Constitución Argentina*, pp. 51 f., 72, 297 ff. Buenos Aires: Imprenta y Casa Editora de Coni Hermanos, 1907. (An excellent book for the study of the Argentine Constitution, giving full interpretations and comment.)

responsibility, inasmuch as a local citizen was also a citizen of the entire nation.

The provision that every one had the right to teach and to learn, as stated in Article 14, was intended to give private schools the same legal standing as public schools or church schools. For a long time, education had been dominated by the Catholic Church; the constitution proposed to make education free for every one, without the imposition of any fixed dogma upon the students. The right to teach and to learn referred principally to the freedom of opening and conducting schools; it did not mean that any doctrine contrary to the welfare of the State or to common morality could be taught or circulated.¹

The national government was giving aid to elementary schools throughout the nation as early as 1865. In that year, President Mitre stated in his message to the Argentine Congress that public instruction in all the provinces, "paid for by the national government," was increasing in a satisfactory manner.²

Although the provinces had been charged by the constitution with the responsibility for establishing adequate primary schools, they neglected this duty to a considerable extent.³ In order to supply the needed educational services, the national government increased its aid to local districts. After the city of Buenos Aires had been nationalized in 1880, its schools were brought under the control of the national government. In 1881 the national government created the National Council of Education, a body which was given the responsibility of administering

¹República Argentina, Debates Parlamentarios..., Vol. I, p. 32.

²Ibid., Los Mensajes..., Vol. III, p. 231.

³De Vedia, op. cit., pp. 297 ff.

and directing the primary schools of the national capital and the national territories.¹

With the creation of the National Council of Education, a law was passed which made education free of charge and compulsory for all children between the ages of 6 and 14 years. Parents were permitted to educate their children in their own homes, if they chose to do so, but they had to prove that this was actually done.² Another provision of the law specified that a child was not required to travel more than one kilometer in order to attend school in the cities, nor more than five kilometers in the country districts.³

On July 8, 1884, the law establishing the administrative basis of public education (Ley 1420) in Argentina was passed. It set up the administrative machinery for the public school system, outlining the duties of various officials, and specifying many activities which fell within the jurisdiction of the different administrative groups.⁴

One of the provisions of this law required that every town or vicinity having between one-thousand and fifteen-hundred inhabitants, or every city district having that many inhabitants, should have at least one public school; while every vicinity having from three-hundred to five-hundred inhabitants, in the national territories, should have at least one school. Another provision stated that a fine of five pesos was to be assessed against any parent who did not send his children to school.⁵

¹República Argentina, Censo General...1909, p. 6.

²Ibid., Memoria....1885, p. xxi1.

³Ibid., pp. 7 f.

⁴República Argentina, Consejo Nacional de Educación, Cincuentenario de la Ley 1420, Tomo I, pp. 401-09. Buenos Aires; 1934.

⁵Ibid., Memoria....1885, pp. 7 f.

The provision for compulsory school attendance was not enforced, and became a dead letter; there were not enough schools to accommodate all the children of compulsory school age.

With some modifications, the above-mentioned law still forms the basis of elementary education in Argentina. Legislation since 1884 has included provisions for changes in administration, organization, courses of study, and relatively unimportant details. Vaccination was made obligatory for all pupils in public and private schools in Buenos Aires in 1885;¹ inspection of sanitation in schools and colleges was required in a law passed in 1886;² a day for tree-planting, similar to Arbor Day in the United States, was made a yearly event in 1900.³

The establishment of primary schools throughout the entire nation under the control and administration of the national government was provided for in 1904 by the Lainez Law. This was intended to raise the standards of the schools in the poorer provinces, and to insure educational opportunities for more children.⁴

The national government of Argentina has exerted strong control over education since the enactment of the basic law of common education in 1884. This has been a disadvantage in that each new administration, upon assuming power, has endeavored to impress its own ideas and theories upon the educational system of the nation. The effect of changing policies has been most

¹Ibid., p. 195.

²Ibid., p. 123.

³República Argentina, Censo General....1909, p. 10.

⁴Macdonald, op. cit., p. 322; Rivarola, op. cit., pp. 322 f.

At the present time there are approximately as many primary schools operated by the national government as there are by the provinces.

felt in the secondary schools, or national colleges.

In 1856 the Argentine Congress authorized the establishment of four national colleges; however, lack of money made this impossible, and the authorization was cancelled in the following year.¹ In 1863 the National College of Buenos Aires was founded, marking the beginning of the system of secondary education in Argentina.²

The principal law governing secondary education was that of September 30, 1878. This law declared that there should be liberty of teaching in the field of secondary education - that is, the student could attend any private secondary school which he chose, with the right to be examined on his studies before any examining board in the national colleges maintained by the nation, thereby having equal right to a diploma with those students who attended the national colleges.³ This right of the student to attend any school, and receive credit therefor, depended upon the private school's compliance with certain requirements set up by the national government, such as courses of studies equivalent to those in the government schools.

University education is regulated by a governmental decree of July 3, 1885.⁴ At that time there were only two universities in Argentina - those at Buenos Aires and Córdoba. This regulation provided that each university should be headed by a rector, who was to be elected for a four-year term by an assembly composed of all the members of the university. It also provided

¹República Argentina, Censo General...1909, Vol. III, p.17.

²Ibid.

³República Argentina, Memoria...1886, p. 243.

⁴Ibid., Registro Nacional...., Vol. X, Document No. 14362, pp. 71f.

regulations for the selection of professors, and for administrative practices.

Numerous decrees and regulations for the schools have been issued by the national government, some of them dealing with matters which could have been handled by local initiative. Excessive centralization of control has hampered individual effort, and this has not increased efficiency in the school system.

(The chapters dealing with school administration and the financial support of the schools give more details of school legislation in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay.)

Chile. - The first legislation concerning education in Chile was enacted on June 18, 1813; it included the following provisions:¹

Every locality of fifty or more inhabitants should have a school, financed by the citizens of that locality.

In every such school, there should be established a fund for buying books and school equipment needed by the pupils, so that under no pretext could parents be assessed even the slightest contribution.

Because of the importance of the teaching position and its service to the country, teachers ought to be given all consideration and honor; consequently, teachers should be considered most respectable, and they should be exempted of military service to the government.

The second regulation concerning public education in Chile was approved by the Chilean Senate on February 26, 1819. One of its most important stipulations was the following:²

In all the schools there should be instruction in reading, writing, and counting - the teachers giving special care so that the children learn the Castilian grammar, instructing them in the fundamentals of our sacred religion...and revealing the rudiments of the origin and object of society, the rights of man and his duties to the society and to the government which directs it.

It is clear that in this provision the government took

¹Gonzalez, op. cit., pp. 18 f.

²Ibid., pp. 35 f.

the opportunity to foster support of the government in the public schools. During this period in Chile's history, affairs were in a very turbulent condition, and any action which would tend to promote social stability and good order was much to be desired.

On May 25, 1833, under the administration of President Prieto, Chile adopted a constitution which lasted until 1925. Two of its provisions regarding education were:¹

Public education is a primary responsibility of the government. Congress will form a general plan of education, and the Minister of Education will give a yearly account of the state of education in all of the republic.

There shall be a superintendent of public education, in whose charge will be the inspection of national education, and its direction will be under the authority of the government.

These provisions indicate that the government wished to exercise a close control over education. But, although the Congress was supposed to form a general plan of education, this was not done; a lack of unity in Chilean education resulted.

In 1839 the Univeristy of San Felipe was closed; in 1843 the new University of Chile was organized in its place. The law creating this university gave it the supervision over all education in the country, and placed primary education under the direction of the faculty of philosophy and humanities.² On April 23, 1844 that faculty ordered that visits should be made for the inspection of schools in the capital every three months, and requested the directors of schools to send, every six months, data on the progress of their schools. However, these directions were not carried out. The university neglected its assigned duties, either because it was occupied with its own private matters

¹Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 53.

²Ibid., pp. 122 f.

or did not receive support from the government in its recommendations.¹

Placing the direction and control of all branches of education in charge of the university was similar to the practice in France, whose influence on Chile was strong.

On November 24, 1860 the Organic Law of Primary Education was enacted. Two of its main provisions were:²

Primary education is to be absolutely free.

A school is to be established for boys, and another one for girls, in every town containing two thousand inhabitants.

According to this law, which formed the basis of the system of elementary education until 1920, primary education was under the direction of an inspector-general who was assigned a post in the university council.³ It happened, therefore, that primary education was partly freed from university control, though the inspector-general was an agency linking the primary schools to the university. Secondary education, however, was still in the complete control of the university.

On January 9, 1879, the Organic Law of Secondary Education was enacted, organizing secondary and superior education in a branch separate and distinct from any connection with primary education.⁴ By this act, the unifying influence of the university on all the education in the nation was given up. After this date, primary education became completely separated from secondary education, although both of them still remained under the control of

¹Ibid., p. 285.

²Ibid., p. 148.

³República de Chile, Memoria del Ministerio de Instrucción Pública, p. 11. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Nacional, 1907.

⁴Ibid.

the same final authority - the Minister of Education.¹ Secondary education remained under the control of the university through the agency of the Council of Public Instruction and the Rector of the University;² this continued until 1927.

The result of the laws of 1860 and 1879 was a wasteful duplication of services and effort, and an increase in class antagonism. On the one side was primary education for the common people; on the other side, secondary schools or liceos having their own private primary or preparatory schools, for the more fortunate and wealthy people.³

On August 26, 1920 the Law of Obligatory Primary Education was passed, superseding in some respects the old law of 1860. Some of its most important provisions were:⁴

Parents and guardians are obligated to give primary education to their children and protégés. [This meant at least four years of schooling]

Continuity of the educational system is to be established by suppressing, within six years, the private preparatory schools for the liceos, making a graduation certificate from the sixth year of the elementary school the requirement for admission to the liceos.

Owners of factories employing two hundred men or more, and owners of farms containing two thousand hectares [approximately five thousand acres] or more, are required to open schools for the children living there, under penalty of a fine [maximum one thousand pesos]. The Chilean government is to give such schools a subsidy of twenty-five pesos per student. [In 1938 this subsidy was raised to one hundred pesos per student, annually]

The compulsory school attendance provision was rather effective, resulting in a large increase in primary school

¹ Ibid.

² República de Chile, Recopilación de Leyes i Reglamentos Relativos a los Servicios de Instrucción Superior, Secundaria, i Special, 1912, p. 134. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Universitaria, 1912.

³ República de Chile, Memoria...1911, p. 12.

⁴ Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 233.

enrollments in the following years. However, owners of large farms and of factories paid little attention to the law, preferring to pay the fines rather than establish schools, even considering the promised subsidies.

A new constitution was formed by Chile in 1925, but it made no important change in the provisions relating to education, simply adding the sentence: "Primary education is obligatory."¹

From 1927 until the early 1930's, reforms were made in an attempt to unify the schools, with the six-year primary school as the common base, from which the students would proceed to the secondary school and from the latter to the university.² However, many of the reforms were not successful, and in higher education the old programs were brought back, slightly modified.³

On October 30, 1928 there was created a Directory General of Secondary Education, because it was felt that the various heterogeneous agencies in this field should be organized into one group, independent of the professional schools; unity of direction and control became desirable also because of the increasing number of secondary schools.⁴ The Director General was to be directly responsible to the President of the Republic, and was to promote and maintain the discipline and efficiency of the secondary schools, proposing study plans, creation or suppression of courses, and attending to other details.

On October 31, 1928 the Directory of Primary Education was established, as a dependency of the Ministry of Public

¹ Constitution of the Republic of Chile, Pan American Union, Law and Treaty Series, No. 3. Washington: 1926.

² Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 285.

³ Ibid., p. 314.

⁴ Ricardo Donoso, Recopilacion de Leyes, Reglamentos y Decretos Relativos a los Servicios de la Enseñanza Pública, p. 73. Santiago de Chile: Ministerio de Educación Pública, 1937.

Education. This body was established in order to unify the services engaged in primary education, and to increase the efficiency of the schools.¹ The Director General was to be the chief controller of primary and normal education in the entire country, making plans for organization of schools, nominating personnel, adopting textbooks, and looking after many other details.

The University of Chile, organized in 1842, was the central controlling agency for all education until 1879, at which time some modifications were made; these resulted in the separation of control over primary education and a change in the relation of secondary education to higher education, previously referred to. In 1931 other changes were made in the special statute governing the university; several new departments, such as engineering and agriculture were added. A pedagogical institute was established in the university in 1934, for the purpose of training teachers for the secondary schools of the nation.²

The educational system in Chile has been more stable than that in Argentina, perhaps because of the conservative, aristocratic nature of the directing classes in the former nation. Argentina was not free from internal dissension until about 1880; furthermore, the more democratic nature of the Argentinians made for greater and more extensive changes in their institutions. In both nations, however, the government exerts a much stronger control over education than their republican forms of government would suggest, and this is reflected in the school legislation of those nations.

¹ Ibid., pp. 66 f.

² Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., pp. 346 ff. This represented a reorganization of the old pedagogical institute which had been founded in 1889.

Uruguay. - The first law regarding public education in Uruguay was enacted on February 10, 1826, when the national legislature ordered the establishment of schools in all the towns. The most important features of this law were:¹

The Lancasterian system of instruction was to be adopted.

Children were to enter school at the age of seven years.

The management of all the schools was to be placed in charge of one director.

For each school there was to be an inspectorial committee composed of a judge and two other respectable citizens of the community.

The constitution adopted by Uruguay in 1830 placed primary education under the control of the local municipal councils; the latter were authorized to supervise this service.² This resulted in a decentralization of school authority, a situation which lasted until 1847. In that year a shift was made to centralized control with the creation of the first national authority over primary education - the Institute of Public Instruction. This body consisted of ten members; its duties were to improve, to make uniform, and to direct primary education, and also to inspect secondary and scientific education.³

This institute was effective to a limited extent only, and it was abolished by the government in 1875. It had failed to accomplish satisfactory results because its authority conflicted with that of the local governing councils, or juntas; in any dispute, the institute lacked means of enforcing its decisions. Another reason for the failure of the institute was lack of

¹República Oriental del Uruguay, Anales de Instrucción Primaria, Epoca 2, Tomo IV, Nos. 1 and 2, p. 237.

²Ibid., Catalogo del Material Escolar Enviado a la Exposición Anexa al Congreso Internacional de Higiene Escolar, p. 54. Montevideo: Imprenta Artística, 1911.

³Ibid., Anales...., Epoca 2, Tomo IV, Nos. 1 and 2, pp. 231-33.

adequate information about local conditions throughout Uruguay, which made it impossible for the institute to render wise decisions or to make helpful suggestions for local authorities.¹

From the date of the abolition of the institute in 1875 and until 1877, primary education in Uruguay was managed by the Commission of Public Instruction of Montevideo. On August 24, 1877 the Law of Common Education was enacted, marking the beginning of systematic elementary education in Uruguay.²

The Law of Common Education established the office of Director General of Public Instruction. This body was supposed to supervise all the other school authorities in the nation; it was directly responsible to the Minister of Public Instruction. The members of the Directory General were to direct primary education in all of the republic, to nominate or suspend teachers, to select textbooks, to approve rules and programs for the schools, to publish a periodical dedicated exclusively to education, and to propose to the President of the Republic any reforms or modifications in school organization and methods which might be considered advisable.³

This law also gave permission for the establishment of private schools throughout the republic on the condition that such schools would submit desired data to the Director General and would consent to all inspection ordered by the school authorities, and did not introduce any teaching or ideas contrary

¹Ibid., pp. 253 ff.

²República Oriental del Uruguay, Catalogo del Material Escolar...., p. 54.

³Ibid., pp. 56 ff.

to the constitution, the laws of the nation, or public morality. It made primary education free and obligatory for all children between the ages of six and fourteen years, but provided that parents might educate their children in their own homes or in any private school that they wished. It specified that parents should be penalized for failing to educate their children.¹

Despite the provisions of this law, compulsory school attendance was not rigidly enforced. In 1877, boys were not expected to travel farther than four kilometers, nor girls more than two kilometers, to reach school in cities and towns; in the rural districts, the distance which a pupil was expected to travel to reach school was left to the judgment of the departmental commissioner or inspector.²

In 1910 legislation made mandatory the creation of rural schools in places where at least thirty students were available, provided that this did not require boys to travel more than four kilometers and girls more than two kilometers in order to reach school. Such rural schools were supposed to admit pupils of both sexes; the teachers in these schools were to be either women or married men.³

A new constitution was adopted by Uruguay in 1934, containing these provisions in regard to education:⁴

The care and education of children so that they may reach their full physical, intellectual, and social capacity, is a duty of the parents.

Liberty of teaching is guaranteed. The law regulates the intervention of the State for the sole object of maintaining hygiene, morality, security, and public order.

¹Ibid., p. 64.

²República Oriental del Uruguay, Legislación Escolar..., p. 29.

³Araujo, Historia de la Escuela Uruguaya, p. 538.

⁴República Oriental del Uruguay, Constitución de la República Oriental del Uruguay. Montevideo: 1936.

Institutions of private education which administer classes free to a number of students, as is stipulated by law, and the cultural institutions, will be exempted from national and municipal taxes, as subventions for their services.

Primary education is obligatory. The State will provide the means necessary for its enforcement.

There is social utility in the freeness of official primary education, and in middle, superior, industrial, artistic, and physical education...In all educational institutions, special attention shall be given to the formation of the moral and civic character of the students.

These detailed provisions regarding education in the constitution reveal the close interest of the national government in this field. It must be remembered that Uruguay is a very small country, with only about two million people, which makes it possible for the national government to supervise education and other social services very closely.

Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay all consider education as a duty of the national government as well as of the local governments. Legislation in recent years bears this out. Not only do these nations give subventions to education in the provinces and local governmental units, but they also have some form of supervision of education by the national government. All of these nations, in recent years, have provided national funds for feeding and clothing needy pupils.

The interest of the national governments of these nations in the education of the people has increased in recent years, judging from their legislation and constitutions. In Argentina, legislation was proposed in 1935 for the control of all elementary education by the national government. The attempt failed, but it indicates the increasing trend toward control of education by the national authorities.¹

¹Macdonald, *op. cit.*, p. 324.

CHAPTER VIII

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Argentina

General administration. - Practically all education above the primary level in Argentina has been left to the national government. But the national government maintains many primary schools also, perhaps half of all the primary schools in the nation. Secondary education is given in the national colleges, maintained by the national government, and in other secondary schools operated by the provinces. There is little cooperation between these two types of secondary schools. Normal schools are maintained by the provinces and by the national government; those maintained by the latter are supervised and controlled by the Inspector General of Secondary Education. University education is administered entirely by the national government.

Primary schools. - Education on the primary level was controlled and administered by the local administrative councils until 1881, when the National Council of Education was created. This body was charged with the administration of primary schools in the national capital and in the national territories; primary schools in the provinces were left in the jurisdiction of the provincial governments. The National Council of Education is a semi-independent agency attached to the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction; it consists of a president and four other members, appointed by the president of the republic, who serve for five years. Among the various administrative duties of this

body is the selection of teachers, a matter in which there is cooperation between the national government and the local school districts, in that the National Council often selects its teachers from a list of candidates acceptable to the local school councils.¹

The local school councils consist of five members who are appointed by the National Council; all of them must be heads of families. These members serve for two years, supervising school hygiene and discipline, stimulating attendance, and providing food for the needy students. In the city of Buenos Aires there are twenty such local councils.

Theoretically, education is compulsory for all children between the ages of six and fourteen years. But the compulsory attendance law is not well enforced; large numbers of children do not attend school at all, and many others drop out of school after only three or four years of study. The opinion seems to prevail in Argentina that education is less necessary for girls than for boys.

Religion may be taught in the public schools, but only before or after the regular school hours. Textbooks are uniform in all of the primary schools conducted by the national government.²

Teachers in the primary schools are usually required to have four years of training in normal schools.³ About eighty per cent of the primary school teachers in Argentina are women.

¹Macdonald, op. cit., pp. 325 ff.

²Ibid.

³Ibid. Two-year courses in normal school qualify a person to teach in rural schools, which usually have four years of instruction only. (See Henry Lester Smith and Harold Littell, Education in Latin America, p. 24. New York: American Book Co., 1934.)

Most of the provincial primary schools have four-year courses; the primary schools in the larger cities usually give six-year courses. Boys and girls usually attend different schools, but in rural districts, where there are few pupils, "mixed" schools are attended by both sexes.

About nine per cent of all children attending primary schools are enrolled in private schools, the remainder being divided in almost equal proportions between the national and provincial schools.¹

Secondary schools. - The national government provides practically all the secondary education in Argentina, in schools known as "National Colleges"; such education is intended to prepare students for the universities. At first, secondary education was given in schools attached to the universities, but after the founding of the National College of Buenos Aires in 1863 many other similar schools were established throughout Argentina.

In 1876 secondary education was reorganized and expanded. In the following years there was much complaint about graft and inefficiency in the national colleges; it was asserted that professors were teaching subjects of which they were entirely ignorant.² In attempts to improve the schools, many changes were made in the courses of study - the entire plan of studies undergoing seven revisions within thirty years. Uncertainty still exists as to the proper course of study for the national colleges.³

Most national colleges have five-year courses (those at Buenos Aires, Córdoba, and La Plata have six-year courses), and their graduates must pass entrance examinations in order to gain

¹Macdonald, op. cit., p. 325.

²República Argentina, Antecedentes...., pp. 324-29.

³Macdonald, op. cit., p. 327.

admission to the universities. The cost of education in the national colleges is borne by the national government, although several small fees are charged to the students.

The national colleges are open to girls as well as boys, and the percentage of girls in these colleges has increased in recent years. There are also separate secondary schools for girls, known as girls' Lyceums.

The national colleges and the lyceums for girls are headed by a rector, who is appointed by the president of the nation upon the recommendation of the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction. The rector is subject to close supervision by those authorities.¹

The professors or teachers in the national colleges, appointed by the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction, must be graduates of a seven-year normal school course or of a university. While many of the teachers in private secondary schools give all their time to one position, there are very few full-time teachers in the national colleges. In the latter schools, teachers are paid according to the number of hours they teach; most of the teachers spend only an hour or two a day at any one school, which makes it necessary for them to go from one school to another in order to earn a day's salary.² Most of these teachers are practicing lawyers and physicians who teach merely in order to supplement their incomes. In the smaller cities it is not unusual to find a lawyer teaching physics or a physician teaching literature.³ Obviously, such an arrangement for obtaining teachers

¹Macdonald, op. cit., p. 321.

²Ibid., p. 328.

³Rowe, op. cit., p. 333; also Macdonald, op. cit., p. 321.

is harmful to morale and school efficiency.

The administration of the national colleges has been difficult at several periods in their history. Student strikes have been rather common; these often had no justification. Professors had the habit of being absent a great part of the time, and a rule was made, in 1890, that absence from one-fifth of his classes in any year was a cause for dismissal of any professor.¹

There were changes in emphasis on certain studies in the national colleges which indicated the changing social environment. Thus, between 1863 and 1891, the emphasis on Latin and mathematics decreased, while that on Spanish and history and geography increased.² This trend has continued to the present time.

The secondary schools of Argentina are still undergoing changes, in the attempt to meet the needs of the nation.³

Universities. - The six national universities in Argentina - those at Cordoba, Buenos Aires, La Plata, Santa Fe, Tucumán, and Cuyo - are governed by separate statutes of their own and are practically autonomous. The universities of Buenos Aires and Córdoba, the only ones in existence in 1885, are regulated by a law passed in that year, the provisions of which have been referred to (p. 83). Most of the universities are similar in several respects, and their administration follows a general pattern.

The head of each university is the rector, who is chosen for a four-year term by all the members of the faculties. The rector must be an Argentine citizen, a graduate of one of the

¹República Argentina, Antecedentes..., p. 380.

²Ibid., pp. 442-45.

³For a detailed description of these schools, see Robert King Hall, "The Secondary School in Argentina," unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1936.

Argentine universities, and at least thirty-five years of age.¹

In each university there is a Superior Council composed of the rector and the deans of the faculties; there is also a body known as the University Assembly, which consists of the members of the directive councils of the various faculties. Each faculty makes its own rules regarding courses given, methods, and discipline.

In filling vacancies, professors are selected from a list of three candidates submitted by the faculty in which a vacancy occurs. The members of this faculty choose three candidates and submit their names to the Superior Council of the University. This group, upon approving the list of names, forwards it to the president of the nation. The president then selects one of the three candidates, who thereby is given a professorship in the university.

Despite their autonomy, the universities have been closely supervised by the national government. At various times, trouble has broken out in the universities because of political matters - the instigators of reforms and radical changes often having been university students.

During the early days of the universities, the principal studies were theology, law, and medicine. The interest in theology has declined, while literary studies and history have taken a prominent place in the curriculum. Experimental science, involving manipulation of physical matter and chemicals, has not appealed to the Latin American student as much as has abstract and speculative discussion.

¹Macdonald, op. cit., p. 331. Also see Republica Argentina, Registro Nacional...., Vol. X, pp. 71 f.

The universities in Argentina are strictly professional institutions. Many students who desire general education of the type given in the liberal arts courses in colleges and universities of the United States, unable to pursue such studies, enroll in courses in medicine and law, although they never intend to practice those professions upon leaving the university. This explains why there are so many doctors in Argentina and other Latin American countries who do not practice medicine, and so many men with degrees in law who are not lawyers by profession. There are practically no elective subjects in the universities.

Special schools. - The numerous special schools in Argentina, such as those of commerce, industry, technical studies, and professional schools for women, are under the direction of the Inspector General of Secondary, Normal, and Special Education, who is directly responsible to the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction. While many of these schools give instruction on the secondary level, they are not considered as part of the secondary school system - there is a class difference between education in the special schools and that in the secondary schools, the latter having a much higher social status and greater favor.

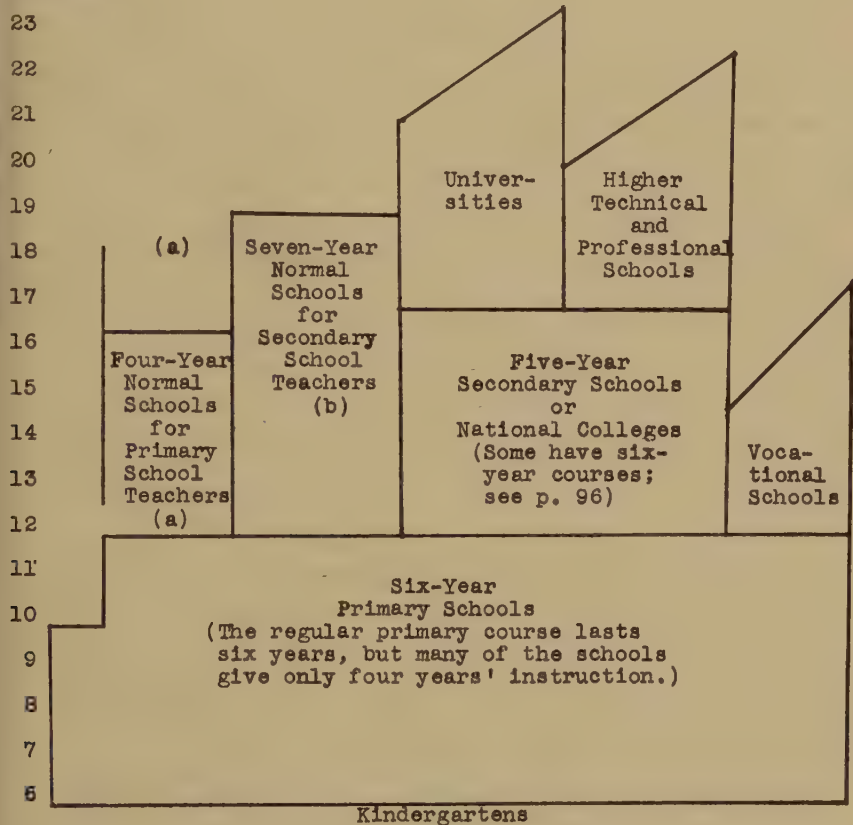
The administration of the primary and secondary schools in Argentina has been affected by the changing political forces in the nation. The programs and plans of the national colleges have undergone many changes, due largely to the wishes of political leaders who were desirous of leaving their influence on the educational system of the nation. In primary education, the national government has intervened for the purpose of providing adequate schooling in provinces which were unable to maintain good schools, and such intervention has been helpful.

The structure of the educational system in Argentina is illustrated below.

FIGURE 1

PRINCIPAL FEATURES OF THE ARGENTINE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM*

Ages of
Students



*Based on sources mentioned in the text.

^aThe students are admitted to these schools at the age of 14 years; previously, girls were admitted at 13. A special two-year normal school course is given, enabling the graduate to teach in the rural schools; these two years are identical with the first two of the four-year normal school course.

^bAlthough the four-year and seven-year normal schools are distinct institutions, the first four years in each are the same.

Chile

General administration. - The Ministry of Education in Chile directs general education in the entire country, having, under its immediate control, primary, secondary, and special education. Superior and higher education is given and controlled by the University of Chile; it has been relatively independent since 1929. The Minister of Defense has charge of army and navy schools; the Department of Agriculture has charge of the agricultural schools; and the Department of Justice has charge of schools in the prisons and reformatories.¹

The unitary form of the Republic of Chile has favored the centralization of its school system. The teaching state, or centralized control, outweighs community or local activity in education. School finances, rules for administration and operation of schools, provisions for equipment, and similar details are handled in the capital by the Minister of Education and the President of the Republic.²

Religious organizations control most of the private education in Chile. The Chilean government has not been able to regulate these church schools very much, or fix standards therein, because such action is considered by the religious organizations as an attack on their freedom and rights.³

The centralization and university supervision of schools in the past have kept secondary education in Chile on a high level - perhaps higher than secondary education in any other Latin American country. Higher education has been fostered by the National Institute, founded in 1811, and by the University of

¹ Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 270.

² Ibid., p. 289.

³ Ibid., p. 285

Chile, established in 1843. However, primary education has not been so carefully promoted.¹

Primary schools. - The basic laws of 1860 and 1920 placed on the local councils (ayuntamientos) the obligation of providing primary education. However, the national government has not forced the local councils to fulfill their duty in this respect, while the latter groups excuse their own neglect by arguing lack of clear authority, or lack of money with which to maintain schools.²

According to the basic law of 1860, primary schools were to be of two types - elemental and superior. The exact organization of these types was not clarified until 1883, when the elemental school program was fixed as four years of the fundamentals and the superior program was set up as a three-year addition to the former. Thus, the elemental schools had four-year courses, while the superior schools had seven-year courses. The elemental schools, according to the decree of 1883, remained in charge of preceptors, as formerly, while the superior schools were governed by a higher school officer when the attendance passed or reached fifty students. The decree of 1883 also set up the programs of studies for both types of schools and prescribed details of administration.³

In 1899, another decree shortened the course of the superior school to six years. Instruction in the superior schools, as well as in the elemental schools, was declared free for all the students. The superior schools, at this period, were usually located in the larger towns and cities. Separate schools were maintained for boys and girls, as a rule, although there were

¹Ibid., p. 289.

²República de Chile, Rel Estadístico..., pp. vi-viii.

³Ibid.

mixed schools in some districts, especially in the more sparsely populated regions.¹

There have been only slight changes in the types of primary schools since the decree of 1899 took effect. At the present time the elemental school of four years is still in vogue; the superior school of six years has had a vocational course of two years added thereto and is now known as a "Complete School". A new type of primary school, known as a "Third-Class School", has been created; it gives a two-year course covering the lowest part of the educational field. The relative importance of the different types of primary schools can be gauged from the fact that, in 1938, there were 420 superior or complete schools, 539 elemental schools, and 2640 schools of the third class. It is thus seen that more than two-thirds of the primary schools in Chile give only two years of training.²

Secondary schools. - Secondary education in Chile is given in liceos maintained by the national government, which have a six-year course of study, and in some private institutions.

The aims of secondary education are stated to be the moral, intellectual, and esthetic development of the students.

Instruction in the liceos is characterized by uniformity and rigidity, nothing being left for individual initiative. The plans of operation, programs of studies, and other details of operation are given out by the office of the Director General of Secondary Education.

Graduates of the liceos are granted the degree of Bachiller by the University of Chile, upon passing examinations

¹ Ibid.

² Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 292.

given by that institution. Recently, the university has deplored the deficiency of the graduates of the liceos in mathematics, languages, and history.

Since 1925, nominal fees have been charged in the liceos. For the promising students of limited financial resources, scholarships to the extent of ten per cent of the total enrollment in the liceos are provided.

In the public liceos, as in the national colleges of Argentina, the teachers are paid according to the number of classes which they teach; in the private liceos there are a great many full-time teachers. While the public liceos require their teachers to have the diploma or title of Profesorado del Estado, indicating a high level of ability, the private liceos have no fixed requirements for teachers.¹

Universities. - Higher education in Chile is given at the National Institute, the Catholic University at Santiago, and at the University of Chile, the latter being the principal center and having the most students. The Chilean government exerts strong influence on higher education, and practically controls the administration of the National Institute and the University, the latter serving for a long time (1842 to 1879) as the agency by which the government controlled all education in the nation.

The administration of the University of Chile follows procedure outlined in a law enacted on May 20, 1931.² This law provides for the autonomy of the university, at the same time making the President of the Republic an honorary member of the

¹Ibid., pp. 314-17.

²Universidad de Chile, Recopilación de Leyes, Reglamentos, y Decretos Relativos a los Servicios de la Enseñanza Superior, por Ricardo Donoso, pp. 49 ff. Santiago de Chile: Talleres de Imprenta de la Dirección General de Prisiones, 1937.

university and its patron. The head of the university is the rector, who is assisted in the administration of this institution by a university council which includes the deans of the various faculties, the secretary-general of the university, the general-directors of primary and secondary education, and two members designated by the president of the nation. The rector is appointed by the president, upon the recommendation of all the members of the university; he holds office for five years, but may serve any number of terms.

Professors in the university are also appointed by the president, upon recommendation of the members of the faculty in which a vacancy exists; they can be dismissed from service only by the president after two-thirds of the members of the university council have approved such an action.

The professors are not required to follow any textbook in their courses, and may express their own opinions and doctrines about any subject which they teach, but they are expected to fulfill the general requirements of a program outlined by the faculty or department in which they teach.

The students in every department of the university have a voice in matters which concern them closely, and a student is chosen by his classmates as a representative to the faculty, in each department.¹

Students specializing in law and social studies, and in medicine, take courses running through five years;² those in civil and mining engineering take six-year courses.³

¹Ibid.

²Op. cit., pp. 93, 105.

³Ibid., pp. 141 f.

All salaries and wages in the university are fixed by law, and many details of administration, which seemingly could be handled more efficiently by the officers of the university, are prescribed and regulated by law.¹

Special schools. - There are many institutions giving specialized instruction on the secondary and higher level, some of which are directly controlled by the Minister of Education, and others which are supervised by the University of Chile. The national government gives close attention to all forms of education, including the special and auxiliary branches; the directors of these institutions are appointed by the President of Chile, and their administrative techniques and procedures are regulated by statute.

In general, the administration of all forms of education in Chile is closely controlled by the national government; the president of the nation exerts a strong influence on the schools. The unitary form of the Republic of Chile makes such direct control possible. There is no chance for a conflict between national and local authorities in the field of education, since all education is administered by the nation as a whole.

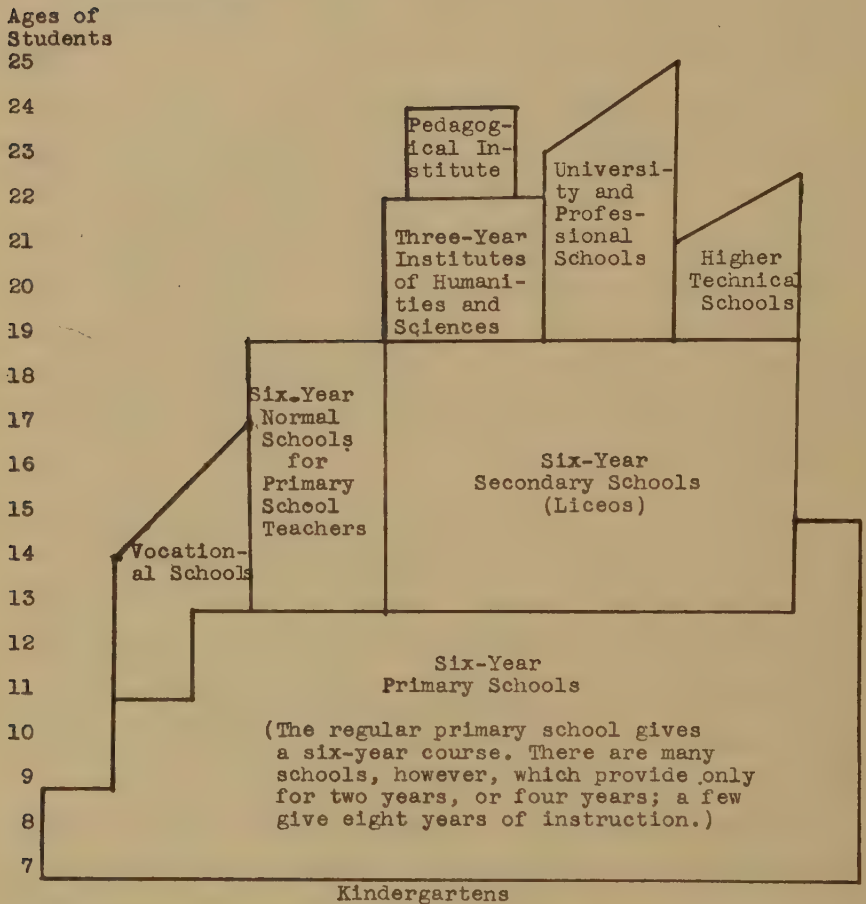
The following diagram indicates the general plan of the public school system in Chile. The old, aristocratic, two-track scheme - one system for the socially fortunate and another system for the common people - has been changed. Now there is a basic course of six years of primary education which enables the student to proceed up the educational ladder, going to vocational schools or to the preparatory schools, as he finds desirable.

Teachers for the secondary schools are still trained in institutions that are distinct from those for primary schools.

¹Ibid., p. 2.

FIGURE 2

PRINCIPAL FEATURES OF THE CHILEAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM*



*Based on sources mentioned in the text.

Pupils may enter the vocational schools upon completing either four or six years of primary school.

For prospective secondary school teachers, the pedagogical institute provides two years of training for students who have completed a three-year course in humanities or science, given in connection with the university.

Uruguay

General administration. - Uruguay, like Chile, is a unitary republic, and this makes possible the direct administration and supervision of education by the national government; the small size of the nation is another factor which enables the national government to control education completely.

Primary and normal education is controlled by the National Council of Primary and Normal Education, which maintains inspectors throughout the entire nation. Secondary education is directed by the Council of Secondary and Preparatory Education, which is a part of the University of Montevideo - the center of higher education in Uruguay. There also exists a National Commission of Physical Education, and, under the Minister of Industries, a Council of Industrial Education.¹

Primary schools. - The urban primary schools are of three types: first grade, second grade, and third grade. The first grade schools have a four-year course; they are usually found in small towns and villages where there are relatively few students. The second grade schools have a six-year course, which prepares the students for entrance to the secondary schools; these schools are usually located in the larger towns and cities. The third grade schools, found only in Montevideo, have an eight-year program of studies - comprising two extra years of general cultural studies superimposed on the six-year course of the second grade schools. The rural primary schools have three-year courses only; these courses are especially adapted to the requirements of the localities in which these schools are established.²

¹La Unión Panamericana, La Educación Pública en el Uruguay, p. 1.

²Ibid., p. 2.

In the past, it has been difficult to establish enough primary schools for all of the children, owing to the sparse population; many districts have not had enough children to justify creation of schools. The shifting population of the nation has also increased the difficulty of maintaining schools.

While attendance at school is obligatory for children between the ages of six and fourteen years, it has been felt in Uruguay that children should not be forced to attend school unless they received sufficient food, proper clothing, and necessary supplies as a natural right. It was stated in 1925 that the law of obligatory school attendance could be applied only to the rich, and that poverty-stricken people could not be expected to comply with that law.¹

Some interesting features of primary education in Uruguay are the examinations at the end of the school year, which are open to the public and serve as a link between the school and the community;² and the period of school visits and inspections by the people of the community, which is usually held during the first part of December - at the end of the school year.³ In recent years, teachers have attended weekly reunions, held on Thursdays, in order to discuss common problems and ways in which to improve their teaching.⁴

Secondary schools. - Secondary education, which is

¹ República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente al Año 1925, p. 50. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1926.

² Ibid., pp. IX ff.

³ Ibid., p. XXII.

⁴ Ibid., pp. IV-IX.

designed principally for students expecting to enter the university, is closely supervised by the Council of Secondary and Preparatory Education, which is part of the university. Students usually enter the secondary schools at the age of twelve or thirteen years, after completing the six year course in the primary schools. The secondary schools have a four-year course in general cultural subjects, which is followed by two years of preparatory studies of a pre-professional type, depending upon the particular department of the university which the student desires to enter. Not all of the departments of the university require two years of pre-professional training, but only the four years of general studies. The pre-professional courses are given in direct connection with the university, in two sections - one of which is for girls only, and the other for both sexes. General secondary education is given in other liceos in the capital, Montevideo, and also in secondary schools throughout the nation, of which there is one in every department or section.¹

As in Argentina and Chile, most of the teachers in the secondary schools of Uruguay are doctors, lawyers, or engineers who teach only a few hours a week, while giving major attention to their private professional affairs.²

The university. - The University of the Republic, commonly called the University of Montevideo, provides all higher education in Uruguay. The faculty of law and social science has a five-year course of study; the faculty of medicine and surgery, a six-year course (pharmacy, three years only); the faculty of engineering, a six-year course; and the faculty of architecture,

¹La Unión Panamericana, op. cit., pp. 7 f.

²Ibid., p. 9. There are no special training schools or preparatory courses for secondary school teachers in Uruguay.

a five-year course. The Superior School of Commerce, also a part of the university, provides a four-year course in advanced business administration and a two-year course in elementary business methods. As mentioned before, the university also operates two sections for secondary and preparatory education, one of which is for girls exclusively; both sections have a six-year curriculum.

There are numerous student organizations in the university - at least one in each department. These organizations send representatives to the councils held by members of the faculties.¹

The administration of the university is similar to that of the universities in Argentina and Chile, being controlled by a rector and having a university council. The university is under the close supervision of the national government.

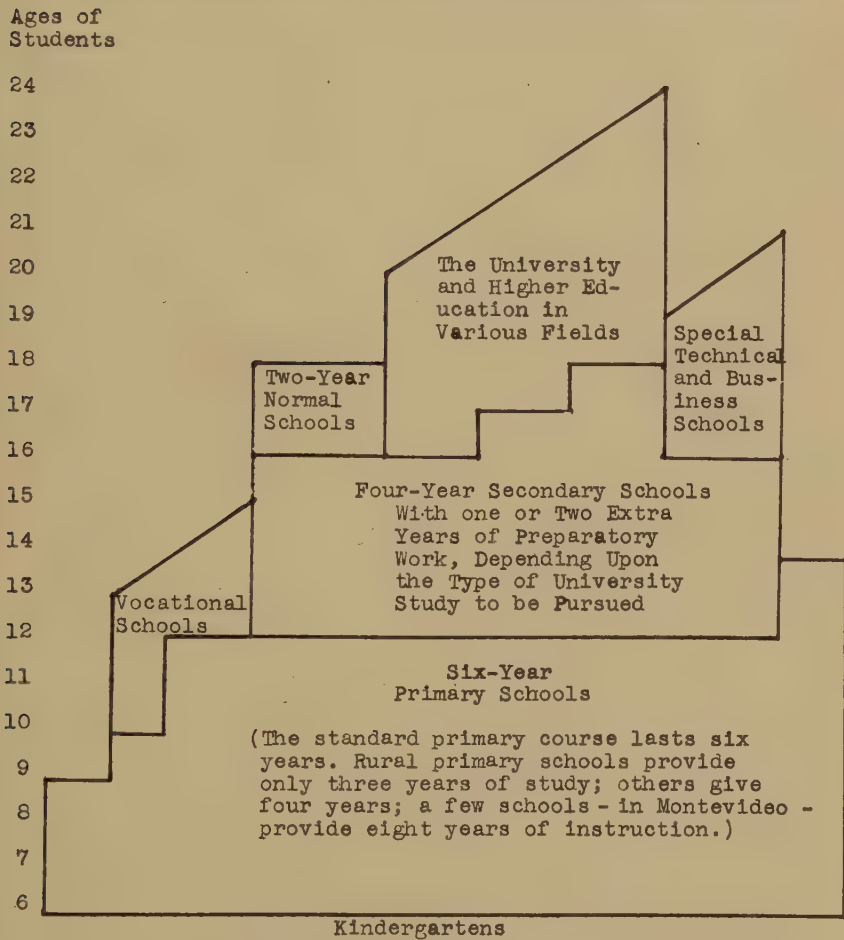
The following diagram illustrates the major divisions of the school system in Uruguay. While the normal school for primary school teachers provides only a two-year course, compared with the four-year course for such teachers in Argentina and a six-year course in Chile, it should be noted that the Uruguayan normal school requires four years of secondary school training for admission - in Argentina and Chile, students may enter the normal school without any secondary school preparation at all.

In all three countries, the regular primary school course is six years in duration; graduation from the sixth year of this course leads to the secondary schools, where six years of preparation are given for the more advanced university study - four years sufficing in some cases in Uruguay, and five in Argentina.

¹ Ibid.

FIGURE 3

PRINCIPAL FEATURES OF THE URUGUAYAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM*



*Based on data in the text.

Primary school teachers receive their training in the two-year normal schools; there is no special training for secondary school teachers. Most of the latter are doctors or lawyers who teach part-time only.

CHAPTER IX

THE FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

An outstanding feature of the educational systems of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay is the rather large amount of money supplied by the national government for the creation and maintenance of public schools, and the liberal subventions which are given to private schools. This policy of national financial aid to education is consistent with the close control of education in these countries by the national governments.

In Argentina. - Secondary and higher schools, and a large number of primary schools, in Argentina are financed by the national government. According to the Argentine constitution, primary education is the chief responsibility of the various provinces; however, this does not exclude the national government from establishing and maintaining primary schools of its own, especially in some of the poorer provinces.

The responsibility of the national government for the promotion of education in Argentina was expressed in 1892:¹

The expense of education is charged by the constitution to each locality of the Republic, but this does not exclude the aid from the Nation, which neither naturally nor legally can be indifferent to the need and the duty of instructing and educating the people of the Republic, in order to fulfill the same purposes of the constitution.

While leading statesmen and educators in Argentina were doing all they could to encourage free primary education, other

¹República Argentina, Informe - Educación Común en la Capital, Provincias, y Territorios Nacionales, Año 1892, Tomo I, p. 35. Buenos Aires: Compañía Sud-Americana de Billetes de Banco, 1893.

people objected to the principle of free education, maintaining that the rich groups should pay for their own education.¹ It was felt in some quarters that, instead of giving money to the provincial governments for the support of education, the national government should take over all primary education and operate schools under its own authority; it was argued that there was no advantage in provincial autonomy in education if the provinces were unable to support their own schools.²

In spite of the opposition of various groups, the belief that education was a national as well as a local problem gained the ascendancy in Argentina, and in 1857 - only four years after the establishment of constitutional government in that nation - the Argentine Congress passed a law subsidizing education in some of the provinces which could not support adequate schools.³

Objection was raised to the policy of free secondary education on the ground that the nation could not afford it, and that such education should be paid for by those receiving it.⁴ Doubt was expressed whether the State should - if it could - give free education to all who wished it, because there were too many lawyers, doctors, and other university-trained people for the services needed, while educated people who were frustrated in their ambitions might become socially dangerous.⁵ Two statements expressing the feeling that the national government should not provide free secondary education were those of Dr. Juan Carballido

¹ República Argentina, Antecedentes, Congreso Constituyente de 1853, p. 1082. Buenos Aires: Compañía Sud-Americana de Billetes de Banco, 1898.

² República Argentina, Censo General...1909, Vol. III, p.5.

³ Macdonald, op. cit., p. 320.

⁴ República Argentina, Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza..., p. 249.

⁵ Ibid., pp. 222 f.

in 1891 and President Carlos Pellegrini in 1892. Dr. Carballido, Minister of Education in Argentina, stated:¹

Secondary education is not a function of the State... It is necessary to read and write, for the benefit of society, but there is no precept in the republican decalogue imposing on the State the duty of free secondary education, and making this privilege payable, not by the receivers of this privilege, but by the community.

In his message to the Argentine Congress in 1892, President Pelligrini declared:²

As it is known, the principle of free secondary education is not contained in the social concept of our institutions.... Our laws make primary education obligatory, and consequently this education ought to be free for all, but here ends the obligation of the State.

Evidently, the idea that secondary or higher education was a benefit merely to the individual and not to the State as a whole was held by some of the leaders in Argentina. A more liberal view was held by the majority of the statesmen and educators in Argentina, as a result of which the policy of maintaining free secondary and higher education was initiated and sustained. The large number of national colleges (secondary schools) and the national universities, all maintained by the national government, give evidence of the broad, national concept of secondary and higher education, which has triumphed in Argentina.

National grants of money for university education have been made since the early days of the republic, and occasional help was given to the primary schools as early as 1838. Evidence of such assistance is found in a statement by the dictator Rosas in 1838 to the effect that a national deficiency had stopped

¹Ibid., p. 389.

²República Argentina, Los Mensajes..., Vol. V, p. 77.

the pay of university employees and those of the primary schools, forcing them to depend on the fees received from the students.¹

As early as 1857, the Argentine Congress passed a law which granted subsidies to those provinces which could not support school systems. However, nothing was actually appropriated until 1864, when somenational money was made available for the provinces of Jujuy, Catamarca, and La Rioja.² In 1865, two more provinces, San Luis and Santiago del Estero, were granted subventions, and by 1868, a total of eight provinces were receiving regular subventions annually.³

On October 13, 1869 the President of Argentina authorized a premium or bonus of ten thousand pesos annually, in addition to the regular subvention, to every province having one-tenth of its total population enrolled in schools. In the same year, a gift of six thousand pesos was made to a school in the city of La Rioja, and gifts of ten thousand pesos were made to each of two schools in the province of San Juan.⁴

On September 25, 1871 the Argentine Congress enacted the first general law providing for subsidies to all of the provinces. The money was supposed to be spent for teachers' salaries, school buildings, and books and equipment. The law provided that the provinces of La Rioja, San Luis, and Jujuy - the poorest three - should receive national grants equal to three-fourths of the total amount spent by each of them annually for educational purposes. Seven other provinces, which were more able to support education, were granted subsidies equal to one-half of the total amount

¹Ibid., Vol. I, p. 390.

²Macdonald, op. cit., p. 320.

³República Argentina, Censo General...1909, p. 5.

⁴Ibid., p. 3.

spent by each of them annually, while Buenos Aires, Córdoba, Entre Rios, and Santa Fe - the richest provinces - were subsidized to the extent of one-third of their own annual expenditures on education.¹

Since no conditions were imposed by the law on the kind or quality of buildings and equipment, or on the ability of the teachers, much of the money given as subsidies was spent unwisely. Incompetent teachers were given jobs by politicians, later being forced to sign receipts for salaries which they had never received; unsuitable buildings were erected or rented from private owners; and other corrupt practices were perpetrated.²

A modification of the law of 1871 occurred in 1873, according to which only one-third of the cost of a school building to be constructed by means of the national subsidy could be paid out when the building was started, another third being payable when the building was roofed, and the final third being payable when the building was completed.³

In 1890, in an attempt to eliminate corruption and waste, further restrictions were placed on the spending of the subsidies received by the provinces. These provided that fifteen per cent of the total subsidy could be spent for the construction of new buildings, fifteen per cent for books and other school supplies, and the remaining seventy per cent for teachers' salaries. It was also stipulated that, in order to receive any subsidy from the national government, the provinces had to spend at least ten per cent of their own revenues for the service of education, and

¹Ibid., p. 6.

²Macdonald, op. cit., p. 321.

³República Argentina, Documentos para la Historia Argentina, Vol. VI, pp. 21-24.

had to submit quarterly reports and their annual budgets for the approval of the national authorities.¹

Despite these provisions of 1890, some abuses continued to exist; one of them was the payment of teachers' salaries in depreciated bonds.²

The system of subsidies described previously helped to extend and improve primary education throughout Argentina. After the enactment of the Lainez Law in 1904, many national elementary schools were founded throughout the country in an attempt to improve education and literacy in the nation, and to provide primary education for all of the people. At the present time about one-half of all the elementary schools in Argentina are operated by the national government. These national elementary schools are concentrated mainly in the poorer provinces, there being approximately eight of the national schools for each provincial school in La Rioja, while in the Province of Buenos Aires there are ten provincial schools for each national school;³ about ninety-three per cent of the total expense of education in La Rioja is borne by the national government.

The national government provides the money for secondary, normal, special, and higher education, although nominal fees are charged in most of the schools in those categories in order to obtain supplementary revenue. The national colleges⁴ and the universities⁵ receive yearly congressional allotments of money.

¹República Argentina, Censo General..1909, Vol. III, p. 6.

²Macdonald, op. cit., p. 321.

³Ibid., pp. 322 f.

⁴Hall, op. cit., p. 68.

⁵Ibid., p. 55.

The congressional grants of money for secondary, normal, special, and higher education are taken out of the general revenues of the nation; the money spent on elementary education by the National Council of Education is derived mainly from the following sources:¹

Twenty per cent of the proceeds from the sale of national lands, not exceeding, on this basis, the sum of two hundred thousand pesos annually.

Fifty per cent of the interest on the judicial fees of the capital, Buenos Aires.

Forty per cent of the direct taxes of the capital, territories, and colonies.

Fifteen per cent of the municipal revenues.

The interest produced by the permanent school fund. [This fund was set up in the Law of Common Education of 1884, which provided that fifteen per cent of each year's revenue received by the National Council should be set aside for a permanent school fund.]

Fifteen per cent of the fees for patents and licenses in the capital, territories, and colonies.

The income from school matriculations at the rate of one peso per year for each child of school age, excepting the indigent children.

School fines, and other fines not destined for other funds.

Property falling to the national treasury in the event of no heirs claiming same.

Taxes on inheritances, ranging from five per cent to ten per cent.

Any donations of money or property which might be made for educational purposes.

The money appropriated annually by the congress for general education in public schools of the capital, provinces, and territories [the schools of the capital and the territories were entirely under the control of the federal government.]

¹República Argentina, Censo General de Educación, 1909, p. 9. While these special taxes for education were in effect in 1910, there evidently has not been any material change in this list since that time.

In addition to the school revenues raised by the special taxes enumerated on the preceding page, direct governmental grants are sometimes made for the support of primary education, similar to those made for secondary and higher education. The national government gave money in support of education long before special taxes were set up for that purpose. The part of the national government's expenditures devoted to education between 1865 and 1914, indicating the government's interest in education, is shown in the following table.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL EXPENDITURES OF ARGENTINE*
NATIONAL GOVERNMENT DEVOTED TO PRIMARY, SEC-
ONDARY, AND NORMAL EDUCATION, 1865 - 1914

Years	Percentages
1865	0.9
1870	1.8
1875	2.8
1880	3.2
1885	6.8
1890	4.8
1895	4.6
1900	3.4
1905	4.5
1910	6.9
.....	
1914	9.0

In 1865 and 1870 the national government had large expenses for military purposes, owing to the war with Paraguay, and this made the expenditures for education proportionately smaller than normal. From 1890 to 1900 the Argentine presidents did not support education as strongly as their predecessors did; this is reflected in the smaller percentages of national income

¹República Argentina, Dirección General de Estadística de la Nación, Anuario Estadístico 1914, pp. 843 f. Buenos Aires: 1915.

spent for educational purposes. The percentage of the total expenditures devoted to education in 1914 was ten times as great as that in 1865, indicating the growing interest of the national government in education and the lessening of expenditures for military purposes, which consumed a large part of the government funds in the early years of the republic.

In 1917 the expenditures of the national government for education, including the maintenance of the universities, were 13.8 per cent of the total budget;¹ in 1935, 9.3 per cent;² and in 1941, 12.6 per cent.³ The decreased percentage for 1935 represents the effect of the depression of the early 1930's, during which period the fixed expenses for interest on debts remained stationary, while operating expenses were reduced. Comparing the year 1941 with the year 1917, it is seen that the percentage of government money spent for education has changed very little; this indicates that other services of the government have kept pace with public education in their sharing of the national budget.

The total expenditures for education, including the expenditures of the provinces as well as those of the national government, amounted to 29.7 per cent of the total expenditures of all government bodies in Argentina in 1928; in 1931 and 1932 the percentages were somewhat less, being 24.1 per cent in both years.⁴ It appears that about 25 or 30 per cent of the total revenues of all government bodies of the country are spent on education.

¹Statesman's Yearbook, 1917. London: The Macmillan Co., 1917. Percentage calculations were made by the author.

²Ibid., 1935.

³Ibid., 1941.

⁴Ibid., respective years.

The amount of money spent on education by the national government of Argentina in several recent years is given in the table below. It should be kept in mind that expenditures of the national government are only a part of the total expenditures for education in the country.

TABLE 2
EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION IN ARGENTINA*
BY THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Years	Expenditures, Pesos ^a	Expenditures, U.S.A. Dol- lars	Population of Argen- tina	Expenditure per Capita, U.S. Dollars
1916	51,388,830	21,583,309 ^b	8,042,486	2.68
1920	71,885,335	30,191,841 ^b	8,533,332	3.55
.....				
1938	131,204,700	41,985,504 ^c	12,761,509	3.29
1941	136,634,666	40,665,076 ^d	13,320,641	3.05

*Data taken from the corresponding issues of The Statesman's Yearbook. Calculations were made by the author.

^aPaper pesos. ^bPesos converted into U.S. money at 42¢.

^cPesos converted at 32¢. ^dPesos converted at 29.76¢.

The unstable value of the Argentine peso between 1929 and 1937 makes it impossible to determine the amount, in United States money, of the expenditures of the Argentine national government for education during that period.

In 1928, when the peso was worth 42 cents, the expenditures for education by all governmental agencies in Argentina amounted to \$7.88 per capita, United States money;¹ the amount spent by the national government alone was not determinable.

¹Based on following data: Expenditures, 200,658,513 pesos or \$84,276,575, U.S. money; population, 10,639,338. See The Statesman's Yearbook, 1928.

Chile. - The cost of education in Chile is paid by the national government. No local taxes are levied for educational purposes. Paying all the costs of education, the Chilean government feels entitled to the complete control of education.¹

Subventions to educational institutions have been given since the early days of the republic. For example, on October 5, 1811 the National Congress of Chile decreed that the natives of the country should be admitted to secondary schools on the same conditions of equality as children of Spanish ancestry, giving, for this purpose, "...the two thousand pesos annually which is now given to the Seminary for the Natives..."

In 1845 the Chilean Congress appropriated 16,900 pesos to establish a "School of Arts and Offices" - an industrial school in Santiago.³ In 1854 the government offered to pay one-half of the cost of any schoolhouse erected by any person or any city.⁴

By 1876, subventions were being given to education on a regular basis, and in the same year subventions to private schools were started. Subventions to technical and professional schools were begun in 1880.⁵

In 1876, subventions to all schools amounted to 1,900 pesos; in 1886, 6,000 pesos; in 1896, 63,000 pesos; in 1906, 756,100 pesos; and in 1911 they reached the sum of 1,604,260 pesos. Up to 1911, the State had given subventions amounting to more than 11,000,000 pesos for education. Of this sum, about 7 per cent had

¹ Rowe, op. cit., pp. 341-49.

² República de Chile, Sesiones de los Cuerpos Legislativos, Tomo I, p. 118.

³ Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 125.

⁴ Ibid., p. 147.

⁵ República de Chile, Memoria Presentada al Congreso Nacional, 1911, p. 106. Santiago: Imprenta Nacional, 1911.

been given to boys's liceos, 25 per cent to girls' liceos, 40 per cent to primary schools, 16 per cent to technical schools, and the remaining 12 per cent to other schools.¹

Subventions to private secondary schools for girls were started in 1878. In 1880, such subventions amounted to 1,200 pesos; in 1890, 12,000 pesos; in 1900, 126,000 pesos; and in 1910, 276,000 pesos.² Subventions to private secondary schools for boys were started in 1897; in 1900, such subventions amounted to 15,900 pesos, and in 1910, 105,100 pesos.³ National assistance for the secondary education of girls was begun earlier than that for boys - in private institutions - because there was a feeling against public secondary education for girls in Chile and the Chilean government therefore tried to encourage private secondary schools for girls.

Private primary education is also given financial aid by the national government. According to a law enacted in 1920, the national government agreed to give an annual subsidy of 25 pesos per student to the owners of large farms and industrial establishments for maintaining schools on their premises; the same subsidy was to be given to private rural schools having 20 or more students and to private urban schools with 40 or more students, on the condition that they would furnish certain data to school inspectors. In 1937 the subsidy per student was increased to 80 pesos.⁴ Most of the private primary schools in Chile are conducted by religious organizations.

¹Ibid.

²República de Chile, Memoria....1911, p. 5.

³Ibid.

⁴Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 281. After 1938, the subsidy was raised to 100 pesos per student; this rate was still in effect in 1942.

The national government also subsidizes private superior education, and in 1938 it gave 500,000 pesos to the Catholic University of Santiago.¹

In 1909 the Chilean government spent 8.4 per cent of its budget for education;² in 1915, 11.6 per cent; in 1930, 14.5 per cent; in 1935, 13.0 per cent; and in 1941, 18.6 per cent.³

The amounts of money spent on education rose from 225,000 pesos in 1850 to 1,099,000 pesos in 1880, and to 27,301,000 pesos in 1910.⁴ It must be noted that the value of the peso varied widely during this interval. Table 3 lists the national expenditures for education in recent years.⁵

TABLE 3
EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION IN CHILE*

Years	Expenditures, Pesos or Eng- lish Pounds	Expenditures, U.S.A. Dol- lars	Population of Chile	Expenditure per Capita, U.S. Dollars
1915	1,163,515 £	5,654,683 ^a	3,641,477	1.55
1929	160,546,991 ps.	19,265,638 ^b	4,364,395	4.39
1931	131,498,112 "	15,779,773 ^b	4,264,819	3.70
1941	408,599,365 "	15,332,476 ^c	4,761,000 ^d	3.22

* Based on data in corresponding issues of The Statesman's Yearbook; calculations made by author.

^a Pounds converted at \$4.86. ^b Pesos converted at 12¢.

^c Pesos converted at 3.75¢. ^d Estimated.

¹ Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 281.

² Republica de Chile, Anuario Estadistico...1910, p. 332.

³ Based on data in The Statesman's Yearbook, respective years.

⁴ Republica de Chile, Anuario Estadistico...1910, p. 332.

⁵ The per capita expenditure for public elementary and secondary education in the United States was \$18.17 in 1927-28.

In 1909 Chile spent approximately five times as much for each secondary school student as it did for each primary school student;¹ in 1920 the amount spent on each secondary student was 4.84 times that for the primary, and in 1924 it was 4.86 times that for the primary.² The ratios are approximately the same for the three years, indicating that there was very little change in emphasis on those branches of education during the years given.

Uruguay. - The national government of Uruguay has given aid to education since the earliest days of the republic. In 1827 the national government spent 10,800 pesos for education; in 1831 it spent 16,500 pesos; and in 1839, 36,773 pesos.³

In 1857 the Congress of Uruguay authorized the expenditure of 57,816 pesos for 10 primary schools in Montevideo and 44 primary schools in the rural districts; the expenditures for the schools in Montevideo were 1,000 pesos each, and for those in the rural districts, 720 pesos each.⁴ In the same year, 5,028 pesos were given to the national college, providing for payment of 84½ pesos (as upkeep) to each of 24 students then in attendance, 1,000 pesos as annual salary for the rector, and smaller salaries for several other officials of the school.⁵

The national government has given the primary schools regular subventions as indicated in the following table. It must be kept in mind that Uruguay, like Chile, is a unitary, centralized republic in which practically all of the expense of education is borne by the national government.

¹República de Chile, Anuario Estadístico, 1910, Vol. III, p. 175. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Nacional, 1910.

²The Statesman's Yearbook, respective years.

³Araujo, op. cit., p. 193.

⁴Ibid., p. 348.

⁵Ibid., p. 349.

TABLE 4

NATIONAL EXPENDITURES FOR PRIMARY*
EDUCATION IN URUGUAY

Years	Pesos
1880	375,328
1890	686,578
1900	809,470
1910	1,465,876

* República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria...1909-10, p. 123.

In 1880 there were 24,785 pupils in the primary schools of Uruguay; in 1910 there were 74,717, or slightly more than three times the number in 1880.¹ Expenditures in 1910 were about three times those in 1880, thus being directly proportional to the number of pupils enrolled.

The national government of Uruguay grants money out of its general funds for the support of education. There are also special taxes for schools, among these being one on sand and stone taken from various parts of the country.² A postal tax also provides revenue for the schools. In 1877, after the enactment of the Law of Common Education, a school tax was placed on all buildings and dwellings in the nation in order to obtain money for the erection of many new schools.³ This tax, amounting to approximately one per cent of the rental value of the property, was to be paid by the occupant of the property. In the year

¹ República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria... 1938-40, pp. 255 ff.

² República Oriental del Uruguay, Legislación Escolar..., pp. 255 ff.

³ Ibid., pp. 16-19.

1885, a dog tax was started, the revenue therefrom going entirely to the educational fund.¹ In addition to these taxes, other sources of revenue for educational purposes are fines, licenses, and incidental and miscellaneous income.²

The table below shows the total expenditures for education by the national government of Uruguay during recent years.

TABLE 5
EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION IN URUGUAY*

Years	Expenditures, Pesos	Expenditures, ^a U.S.A. Dol- lars	Population of Uruguay	Expenditure per Capita, U.S. Dollars
1910	2,308,794	2,378,058	1,094,688	2.17
1916	3,323,410	3,423,112	1,378,802	2.48
.....				
1925	6,287,227	6,475,844	1,677,686	3.86
1930	6,015,793	6,196,267	2,036,884	3.04
.....				
1937	6,765,922	6,968,900	2,065,986	3.37

*Data taken from the respective editions of The Statesman's Yearbook.

^aPesos converted at \$1.03.

Since 1937, the value of the peso - the unit of money in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay - has been unstable in all three countries. On that account, it is difficult to make reliable comparisons between educational expenditures of these nations in recent years.

¹Ibid., pp. 268 f.

²República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria, 1911-14, pp. 451 f. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos A. Barreiro y Ramos, 1916.

Comparative statistics. - On account of the changing value of local money in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, and the lack of data for certain years, only a fragmentary set of comparative statistics is possible. The expenditures on primary, secondary, and higher education are difficult to compare, and the most trustworthy basis for comparison among these nations is the per capita expenditure for education, converted into United States money as a common denomination. There are few years in which data, stable money, and population statistics for all three of these nations are simultaneously available; hence, few comparisons can be made.

The per capita wealth in Argentina in 1926 was calculated to be \$1,344 (United States money); in the same year, that of Chile was \$770 and that of Uruguay was \$964.¹ These figures ought to be kept in mind when comparing the per capita expenditures for education by these nations.

Table 2 shows that the Argentine national government spent \$2.68 per capita for education in 1916 - but the provinces also spent money of their own for education, perhaps an amount equal to that spent by the national government (data showing amounts spent by the provinces were not available). In the preceding year, 1915, the Chilean national government, which pays for all education in the country, spent \$1.55 per capita for education, according to Table 3. In 1916 the expenditures for education by the national government of Uruguay were \$2.48 per capita, according to Table 5. From these statements it can be deduced that Argentina and Uruguay spent approximately equal proportions of their

¹Moody's Manual of Investments, Government Securities, 1926, p. xxxvii. New York: Moody's Investors Service, 1926. (This source states that the per capita wealth of the United States in 1926 was \$2,660 - the greatest per capita wealth for any nation in the world. The per capita wealth of the United States was about twice that of Argentina in 1926).

resources for education in 1916, while Chile, in 1915, spent a smaller part of its resources than did either of the other two nations.

In 1930 the national wealth of Argentina was approximately \$1,230 per capita;¹ in 1929 the per capita wealth of Chile was about \$825,² and that of Uruguay had increased sharply to approximately \$1,670.³

In 1941 the expenditures of the Argentine national government for education amounted to \$3.05 per capita (the provinces spent a comparable amount), according to Table 2, while in the same year the national government of Chile spent \$3.22 per capita for education. In 1937, according to Table 5, the national government of Uruguay spent \$3.37 per capita for education. Comparing Chile and Uruguay, it is clear that Chile spent a much larger proportion of its resources on education than did Uruguay - the reverse of the situation in 1915-16. Compared with Argentina, Chile spent more money on education when national funds are considered, but considerably less per capita when total Argentine expenditures - national and provincial - are counted.

Two significant facts brought out by these comparisons are the sharp increase in the educational effort of Chile compared with that of Argentina and Uruguay - in the interval from 1915 to 1941 - and the large increase in the national wealth of Uruguay. (The latter fact may be responsible for the relative decline in the educational effort of Uruguay in recent years.)

Tables 2 and 3 show that national expenditures for education in Argentina increased from \$2.68 per capita in 1916 to

¹Moody's Manual of Investments, Government Securities, 1931, p. 10.

²Ibid., p. 522.

³Ibid., p. 1078.

\$3.05 in 1941; national expenditures per capita in Chile increased from \$1.55 in 1915 to \$3.22 in 1941; and national expenditures per capita in Uruguay increased from \$2.48 in 1916 to \$3.37 in 1937. Within the periods mentioned, national expenditures per capita in Chile were more than doubled; those in Uruguay were increased about 35 per cent; and those in Argentina were increased about 14 per cent. It appears that in recent years Argentina has spent more money per capita for education than has either Chile or Uruguay, and that Chile has spent a greater proportion of its national resources for education than has either of the other two nations.

This table shows the percentage of the national budget devoted to education in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay:

TABLE 6
PERCENTAGE OF NATIONAL BUDGET SPENT ON EDUCATION*
IN ARGENTINA, CHILE, AND URUGUAY

Years	Argentina %	Chile %	Uruguay %
1915		11.6	
1916	14.4		
1917			11.2
1928	29.7 ^a		
1929		14.4	
1930		14.5	10.1
1931	24.1 ^a		
1935	9.3	13.0	
1936		17.7	
1937		17.1	7.9
1939			15.7
1941	12.6	18.6	

* Data taken from respective editions of The Statesman's Yearbook; calculations were made by the author.

^a Includes amounts spent on education by all branches of government - provincial as well as national.

The preceding table indicates that in 1930 and 1937 Chile spent much larger proportions of its national budget for education than did Uruguay; these two nations offer more reliable bases for comparison with each other than with Argentina, because the national governments bear the entire cost of education in both of them. The total expenditures of the national and provincial governments in Argentina for education in 1928, however, were about twice that of Chile in 1929 and two and one-half times that of Uruguay in 1930, considering the parts of the national budgets devoted to education. It is therefore clear that more money is spent on education in Argentina than in either Chile or Uruguay.

CHAPTER X

THE GROWTH IN SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS

Argentina. - In 1870 there were 89,786 students in all schools in Argentina, according to the first census of the republic, which was taken in that year. At that time the nation had 1,736,702 inhabitants, so that the number of students represented approximately five per cent of the total population.¹

In 1872, the total number of students in all schools was 97,687; this enrollment was equal to 23 per cent of the number of children of school age in Argentina at that time.²

The law regulating common education in 1884 gave an impetus to school enrollments, which was reflected in their increasing to 227,450 in 1887. The enrollment in primary schools alone in 1899 was 351,659, which was equal to 7.8 per cent of the total population of the country in that year.³

In the primary schools, boys outnumbered girls by a wide margin in the early years of the republic, but this lead was gradually narrowed as the leaders of the nation began to realize that women, as well as men, should be educated. The preponderance of boys in the schools was a common feature of most of the countries in South America during the last century; it could not be accounted for by any greater number of males than females in the total populations.

Very few girls were enrolled in schools of secondary and

¹República Argentina, Los Mensajes..., Vol. III, pp. 311 f.

²Ibid., Memoria... 1874, p. 63.

³The Statesman's Yearbook, 1900.

higher education during the early years of the nation, but the ratio of girls to boys has increased steadily.

Table 7 shows enrollments of boys and girls in all public and private primary schools in Argentina from 1900 to 1915.

TABLE 7

ENROLLMENTS OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS*
OF ARGENTINA

Years	Boys	Girls
1900	207,296	179,536
1905	283,090	258,013
1910	364,355	329,864
1915	482,107	445,622

*República Argentina, Extracto Estadístico de la República Argentina, 1915, p. 370. Buenos Aires: 1916.

In the secondary schools, boys have always greatly outnumbered the girls. As late as 1938, the number of girls in these schools was only one-fifth that of boys. In that year, there were 21,357 boys and 5,522 girls in the public secondary schools, and 10,960 boys and 1,781 girls in the private secondary schools.¹ The people in Argentina consider secondary education as much more important and necessary for boys than for girls. This attitude has been prevalent in all the countries of Latin America in the past, and it still continues to a considerable extent; home life is considered the proper occupation and concern of women.

In Table 8 are found the total enrollments in the

¹Annuaire International de l'Education et de l'Enseignement, 1939, p. 69. Geneva: Bureau International d'Education, 1939.

primary schools, secondary schools, and universities in Argentina from 1900 until recent years.

TABLE 8
SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS IN ARGENTINA

Years	Primary Schools ^a	Secondary Schools ^b (Public only)	Universities ^a
1900	386,832	3,231	3,242
1905	541,103	4,609	
1910	694,219	7,003	
1911			7,317
1915	927,729	11,132	
1920	1,150,160 ^c	14,766	
1924			14,397
.....			
1929	1,349,648	17,578 ^a	
1933	1,538,619 ^d	31,549 ^d	19,789 ^d
.....			
1936			27,885
1940	2,005,462		

^aStatesman's Yearbook, respective years.

^bRepública Argentina, Memoria...1921-22, cuadros 66, 67.

^cIbid., cuadro 55.

^dAnnuaire International de L'Education et de L'Enseignement, 1933, pp. 53 f.

The above figures show that secondary and higher education increased relatively more than primary education from 1900 to 1933. With the increase in the number of people in the middle social and economic groups, it is likely that secondary and higher education will continue to show relatively larger increases than primary education.

Since the early years of the present century, the national government of Argentina has been creating and maintaining primary schools of its own throughout the provinces. All of the schools in the capital - Buenos Aires - are operated by the national government. The increase in the extent of nationally maintained primary education, compared with the increase in primary education maintained by the provinces and by private agencies, is illustrated in the following table. Ratios of enrollments are given, using the year 1909 as a base with an index of 100.

TABLE 9

RATIOS OF ENROLLMENTS IN NATIONAL, PROVINCIAL, AND PRIVATE*
PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN ARGENTINA (EXCLUDING THE CAPITAL)

Years	National	Provincial	Private
1909	100	100	100
1914	245	117	97
1919	399	131	88
1924	462	158	100
1929	536	180	106
1934	671	212	104
1939	839	244	117

*Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942, p. 8. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

Between 1909 and 1939, enrollments in the national primary schools increased more than eight times, while those in the provincial schools increased only about two and one-half times and those in the private schools increased only one-sixth. The public schools, national and provincial, enrolled increasingly larger numbers of pupils unable to pay for private education.

The total enrollments in the public secondary schools of Argentina in 1929 were 17,578; those in the private secondary schools were 6,025.¹ By 1938 the public secondary enrollments had risen to 26,879, while those in the private secondary schools had increased to 12,741.² These figures indicate that the private secondary schools had a relatively larger increase than the public secondary schools during this interval.

The trend of enrollments in the universities of Argentina can be gauged from data for the University of Buenos Aires, which is given in the table below.

TABLE 10
ENROLLMENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF BUENOS AIRES*

Years	In Law and Social Studies	In Medicine	In Natural and Exact Sciences	Total Enrollments
1907	1,038	2,367	490	4,062
1912	909	2,858	1,018	7,485
1917	1,383	4,078	1,022	9,756
.....				
1921	1,329	5,612	1,050	11,878

* Data taken from Republica Argentina, Memoria...1921-22, cuadro 76.

Of special significance in the above table is the doubling of enrollments in sciences and medicine between 1907 and 1917 while those for law and social studies increased only about

¹ Henry Lester Smith and Harold Littell, Education in Latin America, p. 28. New York: American Book Co., 1934.

² Annuaire International de L'Education et de L'Enseignement, 1939, p. 69.

one-third. During the latter period, enrollments in sciences and medicine kept pace with total enrollments in the university. In the interval between 1917 and 1921, enrollments in sciences and law and social studies remained almost stationary or declined, but those in medicine increased almost forty per cent.

Comparative data for Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay are given in later tables.

Chile. - In 1893 about four per cent of the total population of Chile were enrolled in schools, the total enrollment in primary schools being 102,701.¹ Since that time, enrollments have increased steadily, as shown in the following table.

TABLE 11
PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS IN CHILE*

Years	Public Schools			Private Schools		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1900	55,423	58,987	114,410	22,965	19,955	42,920
1905	73,705	85,674	159,379	26,053	15,744	41,797
1910	125,071	133,804	258,875	31,614	26,551	58,165
1915	155,180	167,254	322,434	36,578	17,427	54,005
1920	169,616	176,770	346,386	35,373	19,502	54,875
1925	214,207	225,730	439,937	41,591	24,863	66,454
.....						
1932	222,642	217,756	440,398	41,061	32,357	73,418
1938	242,438	237,821	480,259	73,482	57,753	131,235

*Data taken from Sinopsis Estadística de Chile, 1924-27; Estadística Anual de Administración, Justicia y Educación, 1932, 1938. República de Chile, Dirección General de Estadística, Santiago.

An analysis of the above table discloses that from 1900 to 1925 girls outnumbered boys in the public schools, but this

¹República de Chile, Anuario Estadístico, 1910, Vol. I, p. 136.

situation was reversed, boys outnumbering girls in 1932 and 1938. Perhaps the depression of the 1930's made some parents feel that education for girls was a luxury which should be curtailed in order to send their boys to school. In the private primary schools, boys have always outnumbered girls, enrollments of the latter showing wide fluctuations. In 1900, boys outnumbered girls in the private schools by about 15 per cent; in 1920, by 80 per cent; in 1932 and 1938, by 25 per cent. Enrollments of girls have shown an increasing tendency since 1925. An outstanding fact is the increase of about one-third in the enrollments of girls in private schools between 1925 and 1932 - the depression years- while other enrollments showed practically no change despite the increasing population of the nation. This increase might be accounted for by the transference of girls from the public schools (which showed a decrease during this interval) to the private schools, but there is no concrete evidence to verify this.

Examining total enrollments, it is seen that from 1900 to 1925 the number of students in the public schools increased almost four times, while those in private schools increased only one and one-half times. However, from 1925 to 1938, the public school enrollments increased only nine per cent, while the private school enrollments increased almost one hundred per cent. This large increase in private school enrollments is probably due to the belief in Chile that private schools are currently superior to the public schools, and to the recovery from the depression of the early 1930's.

In secondary and higher education, boys have always outnumbered girls by a wide margin, but this preponderance has decreased considerably in recent years. For example, in the year

1905, there were 10,179 boys and only 3,728 girls in the public liceos, but in 1920 the respective figures were 17,823 and 15,057.¹ In higher education, 1,133 men and only 95 women were enrolled in 1900; but in 1920 the corresponding figures were 3,303 and 1,199.² It is evident that Chileans are looking upon education for women as being socially desirable.

The following table provides a comparison between the number of students enrolled in primary schools and those in secondary and higher schools.

TABLE 12
ENROLLMENTS IN PUBLIC PRIMARY, SECONDARY,
AND HIGHER SCHOOLS IN CHILE

Years	Primary	Secondary ^a	Higher	Total
1900	114,410	12,624	1,228	128,262
1905	159,379	21,497	1,549	182,425
1910	258,875	30,731	1,824	291,430
1915	322,434	41,739	3,646	367,819
1920	346,386	49,123	4,502	400,011
1925	439,937	56,648	4,475	501,060
.....				
1932	440,398	61,012		
1938	480,259	80,683		

* Data taken from Sinopsis Estadística de Chile, 1924-27; Estadístico Anual de Administración, Justicia, y Educación, 1932, 1938; República de Chile.

^a Includes special education on the secondary level.

¹ Sinopsis Estadística de Chile, 1925, p. 57.

² Ibid.

According to the preceding table, primary, secondary, and higher education all increased about four-fold from 1900 to 1925. After 1925, secondary education increased relatively more than primary, probably because primary education had reached its maximum rate of increase, and also because there was more room for expansion in the secondary field.

The following table shows the number of pupils enrolled in the first year of the primary schools, and those enrolled in the sixth year. While this gives an indication of the number of pupils dropping out of school, it also reflects the fact that many primary schools have only three years of instruction.

TABLE 13
ATTENDANCE IN THE FIRST AND SIXTH YEARS*
OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN CHILE

Years	Public Schools		Private Schools	
	First Year	Sixth Year	First Year	Sixth Year
1932	147,383	8,340	20,039	
.....				
1936	141,933	10,479	29,909	6,116
1937	149,482	10,671	33,004	6,154
1938	149,340	11,377	35,768	6,392

*Republica de Chile, Estadistico Anual de Administracion, Justicia, y Educacion, 1938, pp. 79, 84; Ibid., 1935, pp. 89, 116.

The above statistics show that about one child out of fourteen in the first year of the public primary schools reaches the sixth year of the course; in the private schools, the ratio is about one out of three.

The necessity of having the children work in order to supplement the family income is perhaps an important cause of

dropping out in the public schools, and a less important cause of elimination from the private schools. Evidently, the vast majority of the children in Chile receive only three or four years of schooling, at most. (In 1925, only 66 per cent of the children of school age received any schooling.¹)

Comparing first year enrollments in 1932 with sixth year enrollments in 1937, which should concern the same groups of pupils, it is seen that out of 147,383 pupils in the first year of the public schools, only 10,671 reached the sixth year of the course. However, out of 20,039 pupils in the first year of the private primary schools, 6,154 reached the sixth year. The survival rate in the private schools is several times better than that in the public schools.

Comparative attendance in the first and sixth years of the secondary schools, or liceos, is given in Table 14.

TABLE 14

ATTENDANCE IN THE FIRST AND SIXTH YEARS^{*}
OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CHILE

Years	Public Schools		Private Schools	
	First Year	Sixth Year	First Year	Sixth Year
1933	7,412	1,614	3,696	523
.....				
1936	7,471	1,557	4,293	505
1937	7,493	1,542	4,440	608
1938	7,289	1,574	5,333	807

^{*} República de Chile, Estadístico... 1938, pp. 87-89; Ibid., 1935, pp. 127, 141.

¹ Sinopsis Estadística de Chile, 1924-27, p. 51 (1926 section). This source shows that the per cent receiving instruction had risen from 51.7 in 1919 to a peak of 67.2 in 1924.

The figures in the preceding table show that attendance in the public secondary schools has been rather stable in recent years, and that first year attendance had actually declined in 1938. On the other hand, attendance in the private secondary schools increased about fifty per cent from 1933 to 1938. The private schools, both secondary and primary, have increased in popularity in recent years, while the public schools appear to have lost some of their drawing power.

Out of 7,412 first year students in the public secondary schools in 1933, only 1,574 reached the sixth or final year of the course in 1938 - a ratio of approximately one out of five. This ratio appears to be stable for the public secondary schools. In the private secondary schools, 3,696 students were attending the first year of the course in 1933, and of these, 807 reached the final year of the course in 1938 - representing a slightly better holding power for the private schools. In both types of schools the extent of elimination of students is very great. Economic reasons are not responsible for this, since practically all of the students in the secondary schools come from well-to-do homes;¹ evidently, students become dissatisfied with the curriculum or lose interest in the school, while a great many fail in their studies.

From Table 13 it is seen that there were 16,825 students in the final years of the public and private primary schools, and Table 14 shows that a total of 12,622 students attended the first year of secondary school. This represents a rather high percentage of primary school graduates entering secondary school.

¹Irma Silva Salas, The Socio-Economic Composition of the Secondary School Population of Chile, (Doctor's Thesis, Columbia University, New York City). Santiago, Chile: 1930.

It has been estimated that out of every 10,000 Chileans, 588 are entering the primary school, 61 are graduating from it, 47 are entering the secondary school, 9 are finishing secondary school, 3 are entering the university, and 1 person is graduating with a university degree or title.¹

Uruguay. - In 1880 there were 17,033 pupils enrolled in the primary schools of Uruguay. By 1890 the enrollment had increased to 38,747, and the increase has continued steadily up to the present time, as indicated in the following table.

TABLE 15
PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS IN URUGUAY*

Years	Primary	Secondary
1900	52,474	
1905	53,040	
1910	74,717	2,591
1915	97,393	
1920	102,889	6,060
1925	125,516	6,137
1930	157,374	
.....		
1932	158,749	11,856
1938	183,415	16,437

*Data for primary schools taken from Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria, 1938-40, pp. 255 f. Data for secondary schools obtained from respective editions of The Statesman's Yearbook.

The effect of the depression of the early 1930's is seen in the number of enrollments in 1930 and in 1932, those of the

¹Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 280.

latter years being hardly greater than those two years earlier. After 1932, enrollments rose rapidly, reaching 183,415 in 1938.

Secondary school enrollments more than kept pace with primary enrollments from 1910 to 1925; from the latter year until 1932, secondary enrollments almost doubled while those of the primary schools increased less than one-fourth. Evidently, secondary education is increasing much more rapidly than primary, even though the latter is increasing considerably.

It is difficult to ascertain the number of students doing work on the university level. The University of the Republic, at Montevideo, enrolls secondary students as well as those seeking higher education, and all of these students are classified as students of the university. Thus, in 1933, it was stated that the University of the Republic had 15,210 students;¹ upon examination, it is found that only 2,320 of these students were enrolled in medicine, engineering, law, social sciences, and other subjects on the university level; the remainder of the 15,210 students were enrolled in preparatory and secondary school courses under the direction of the university.

Enrollments in the public primary schools increased from 74,717 in 1910 to 153,382 in 1934. Enrollments in private primary schools increased very little in this interval - from 20,443 to 20,743.² But in 1938 the private school enrollments had increased sharply to 26,236,³ surpassing the growth of the public schools in percentage of increase since 1934. Private education in Uruguay, as in Chile, has become more popular in recent years.

¹República Oriental del Uruguay, Anuario Estadístico, 1936, Tomo XLI, Part 1, p. 43. Montevideo: 1936.

²Ibid., 1934, Part 1, p. 38.

³The Statesman's Yearbook, 1941.

Religious organizations have provided most of the private primary education since 1910, as indicated in Table 16.

TABLE 16
PRIVATE PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS IN URUGUAY

Years	Church Schools	Lay Schools
1910 ^a	10,851	9,592
1914 ^a	12,081	7,925
.....		
1924 ^b	13,546	5,610
1926 ^b	12,937	5,898
1928 ^b	15,604	4,919
1930 ^c	16,288	4,602
.....		
1934 ^c	17,564	3,179

^aRepública Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria...1911-14, pp. 451 ff, cuadro 13.

^bIbid., Memoria de Instrucción Primaria, 1928, p. LXXVI.

^cIbid., Anuario Estadístico de la República Oriental del Uruguay, 1934, Part 1, p. 38.

The age-group distribution of pupils in the public primary schools in 1934 is given in Table 17.

TABLE 17
AGES OF STUDENTS IN PUBLIC PRIMARY^{*}
SCHOOLS OF URUGUAY, 1934

Age Group	Number of Students
6 to 8 years	37,640
8 to 10 "	48,775
10 to 12 "	43,988
12 to 14 "	26,646
Over 14 ^a "	4,828

^{*}República Oriental del Uruguay, Anuario Estadístico... 1934, Part 1, p. 39.

^aNormally, students graduate from primary schools (six-year courses) at the age of 13 or 14.

There were fewer pupils in the first age group than in the second or third groups because in Uruguay many children do not enter school until they are seven or eight years old. In 1934, more than half of the pupils in the primary schools were under ten years of age, while only three per cent were over fourteen years of age.

Comparisons of enrollments in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay. - The extent to which a nation is providing education can be measured by the percentage of its total inhabitants enrolled in the primary schools. The following table shows the percentages of the populations of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay enrolled in primary schools.

TABLE 18

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION OF THE NATION ENROLLED^{*}
IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS - ARGENTINA, CHILE, AND URUGUAY

Years	Argentina	Chile			Uruguay		
	Total primary	Total primary	Public	Private	Total primary	Public	Private
1900	8.1	5.4	3.9	1.5	7.8	5.4	2.4
1905	9.5	6.4	5.1	1.3	6.7	5.0	1.7
1910	9.8	9.3	7.6	1.7	...	6.8	...
1915	11.5	10.3	8.9	1.4	8.7	7.2	1.5
1920	13.1	10.7	9.2	1.5	8.3	6.9	1.4
1925	13.8	12.8	11.1	1.7	...	7.5	...
1930	13.4	13.0	11.4	1.6	9.5	8.4	1.1
.....							
1932	13.6	11.8	10.1	1.7	9.3	8.3	1.0
1939	15.3	13.2	10.5	2.7	10.3 ^a	8.9 ^a	1.4 ^a

^{*} Author's calculations based on data in The Statesman's Yearbook, various editions; República Argentina, Anuario Estadístico, and other similar sources; República de Chile, Sinopsis Estadística, Anuario Estadístico; Uruguay, Anuario Estadístico.

^a For the year 1940.

Since the primary school is the base and principal agency of education in every country, and especially so in countries where primary education is the only kind received by the vast majority of the people, the preceding table enables one to estimate the extent and progress of education in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay during the first forty years of the present century.

In studying the percentages of the populations of these countries which are enrolled in primary schools, it is helpful to know that, in the United States, about 17.5 per cent of the total population was enrolled in primary schools in 1936, the actual number of pupils enrolled being 22,749,351.¹

The preceding table shows that Argentina has held the lead in the percentage of its population enrolled in the primary schools. Uruguay ranked second in 1900 and 1905, but lost this position to Chile in 1915 and the succeeding years.

Comparing the percentages for the years 1930 and 1900, it is seen that Chile made the greatest improvement, its percentage in 1930 being about two and one-half times that in 1900; Argentina made the second largest improvement, its percentage in 1930 being a little more than one and one-half times that in 1900; Uruguay made the least gain, increasing its percentage in 1930 to approximately one and one-fourth times that in 1900.

The percentage figures for 1930 and 1932 reflect the results of the economic depression of the early 1930's, those for Chile showing a sharp decline in 1932, and those for Uruguay declining moderately in the same year; the percentage for

¹Helen K. Mackintosh, Elementary Education, p. 7. United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1940, No. 4, Part 1. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940. It must be noted that "primary" education - the equivalent of "elementary" education in the United States - in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay generally means six years of schooling, compared with eight years in the United States.

Argentina in 1932, although higher than that in 1930, was less than that in 1925. In the interval between 1932 and 1939 all three nations increased their percentages by about one-eighth, reflecting improvement and a recovery from the depression.

Comparing enrollments in private schools with those in the public schools, it is seen that from 1900 to 1932 the private schools in both Chile and Uruguay barely held their own, those in Uruguay actually losing in percentage of population enrolled. However, between 1932 and 1939 the private schools in Chile increased their percentage by about three-fifths, and those in Uruguay increased their percentage by about two-fifths; during the same interval, the public schools in both nations had a very much smaller rate of increase. In Chile, the private schools enrolled approximately fourteen per cent of the total number of pupils in primary schools in 1932, and about twenty per cent of the total in 1939; in Uruguay, the private schools enrolled about eleven per cent of the total primary pupils in 1932, and about fourteen per cent in 1940. (Private schools in the United States enrolled about ten per cent of the total number of primary pupils in the nation in 1936.¹)

While the figures for the year 1939 show that 15.3 per cent of the total population of Argentina was enrolled in primary schools, comparing well with the 17.5 per cent of the population of the United States enrolled in similar schools in 1936,² statistics for higher education show much lower percentages of the total populations of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay enrolled in universities than is the case in the United States. For example,

¹ Ibid.

² Argentina's percentage would be increased if the first eight years of schooling were considered.

in 1936, in the United States, there were 93 college or university students for every 10,000 inhabitants. During the same year, in Argentina, the corresponding number of such students was 22, and in Chile it was 14. During 1933, in Uruguay, the corresponding number of similar students was only 12.¹

The improvement in the general level of education of the people in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay can be judged by the decrease in illiteracy.

In Argentina, illiteracy among boys and men over 18 years of age who were called for military training decreased from 30.6 per cent in 1896 to 23.5 per cent in 1916, and to 12.8 per cent in 1936.² Illiteracy among the voting population of the nation decreased from 35 per cent in 1916 to 22 per cent in 1930.³

In Chile, illiteracy among the population as a whole decreased from 86.5 per cent in 1854 to 71.1 per cent in 1885, to 60 per cent in 1907, to 50 per cent in 1920, and to 44 per cent in 1930.⁴ In 1940, illiteracy had been reduced to 30 per cent.⁵

In Uruguay, a sampling of about one-ninth of the population in 1924 revealed that 30.4 per cent were illiterate;⁶ in 1928, a school census showed that 17.8 per cent of the children between the ages of 7 and 14 years were illiterate.⁷

¹Based on data in The Statesman's Yearbook, respective years, and Mackintosh, op. cit.

²Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, 1942, p. 11.

³The Statesman's Yearbook, 1932.

⁴Labarca-Hubertson, op. cit., p. 276.

⁵Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, 1942, p. 68.

⁶Educational Yearbook....Teachers College, 1925, p. 450.

⁷República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria....1928, p. XXV.

Public education has made much progress in these three nations, especially since 1900, but it still does not reach all of the people. Illiteracy remains rather high. An unusually large number of students are eliminated from the primary and secondary schools in all three nations, and most of the children receive only three or four years of schooling.

The elimination of large numbers of pupils from school at an early age is partly explained by the short educational programs in many primary schools - courses lasting only three or four years are very common in these countries. Economic necessity is also responsible for the early termination of school attendance. Poverty among the masses of the population is one of the most serious obstacles facing education in all of these nations; many children go to school without adequate food or clothing.¹

While poverty accounts for the elimination of many pupils from the primary schools, it does not account for the elimination of students from the secondary and higher schools. Faulty, inadequate, and uninteresting courses of study seem to be the chief causes of students' withdrawals from schools on these levels; failure of many students to master their studies also accounts for a great number of withdrawals.

¹The alarming extent of malnutrition among pupils has induced the national governments of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay to make special provisions for feeding needy pupils during school hours. Within the last five years, school lunchrooms have been established on a large scale in all three countries. Argentina created the National Commission for School Aid to deal with the problem in 1938. The national government of Chile set aside 9,484,070 pesos to buy food and clothing for poor pupils in 1940. (See Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, 1942, p. 78.) The national government of Uruguay appropriated increasingly larger sums for student welfare in 1938, 1939, and 1940. (See República Oriental del Uruguay, Memoria de Instrucción Primaria....1938-40.)

CHAPTER XI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The native Indians who inhabited the regions comprising present-day Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay were slightly more advanced in civilization and culture than the Indians of North America. In other parts of South America the culture of the natives was much higher. Consequently, the intermingling of the Spanish explorers and colonizers with the natives in most regions of South America was not hampered by a wide gulf between their respective cultural levels, as was the case in the English colonization of North America. As a result, the populations of most South American nations contain strong Indian elements; this is true to some extent of the present population of Chile, but it hardly applies to that of Argentina or of Uruguay, where the Indians quickly disappeared as a social group and where immigrants from Europe - mostly from Italy and Spain - formed the bases of the present populations.

The avowed purpose of Spanish colonization in America was the conversion of the natives to Christianity, for which reason Pope Alexander VI in 1493 granted title to newly discovered lands in America to the King of Spain and his successors. The Spanish explorers and colonizers carried out their duty in this respect rather thoroughly, taking priests with them on their expeditions and establishing churches in every town which they founded. However, they gave most of their attention to the exploitation of regions which were rich in gold and other precious metals, neglecting agricultural regions.

The Catholic Church provided practically all of the education in the Spanish colonies in America. Religious orders such as the Franciscans and Dominicans established many primary schools in connection with the churches, while the Jesuits devoted most of their energy to education of a higher level. The Spanish government did not consider the education of the masses of the people as a state duty, and consequently left this to the Catholic Church. This institution fostered obedience to law and authority among the people, thus rendering them more manageable by and loyal to the government; in this way, the control of education by the Catholic Church strengthened the influence of the latter and also helped the Spanish Kings to keep their colonists and subjects under control. Numerous universities were established under the sponsorship of the Spanish monarchs, and these were operated according to principles laid down by the church. Thus, education during the colonial period was controlled by the Catholic Church and it was administered by this institution in such a way as to promote social and political stability.

After the Spanish colonies had won their independence, the defects of education as it was carried on during the colonial period became apparent. Education had not reached very many of the people; there was a sharp division between upper and lower social groups; and the education received by the more fortunate few had deprived them of initiative and made them dependent upon a leader or a dictator. Political and social turmoil followed, and the directing groups in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay looked to other nations for guidance in education and other national affairs. Among European nations, France was the model which was most closely followed, its institutions, culture, and language being most like those of the newly formed republics. German influence was

strong in Chile after 1880, supplanting that of France. The influence of the United States has been very important in the elementary schools of Argentina and Uruguay.

The normal schools in Argentina were set up according to principles in vogue in the United States, and about thirty teachers were secured from the latter nation by President Sarmiento and his immediate successors. In this way, the primary schools of Argentina were influenced by those ideals which Sarmiento had admired in the United States. In a similar manner, the influence of the United States was brought to the schools of Uruguay, largely through the agency of Varela. Teacher-training institutions in Chile followed German models for several decades after 1880.

The establishment of nation-wide educational services in these countries was the result of demands for intelligent citizenship, the requirements of commerce and industry, the necessity of assimilating immigrants, and other factors. An adequate system of public schools for all of the people in the nation was considered the best means of creating social and political stability and material prosperity. A great deal of educational progress was made possible by the persistent efforts of a small number of enlightened cultural and political leaders in these nations, who had to overcome public indifference and apathy. Poor transportation and communication, and sparse, shifting populations have hindered the development of schools. Widespread poverty, lack of adequate buildings and equipment, scarcity of good teachers, and political instability have seriously hampered educational growth.

School legislation in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay has extended educational services and made attendance at school compulsory. However, many of the school laws have not been well enforced, and there have been so many changes in regulations that

it is difficult to tell what the regular practice is; this is especially true in the national colleges or secondary schools of Argentina. The basic laws for the establishment and regulation of schools, and constitutional provisions for education, have not been changed a great deal.

In Chile and Uruguay, the national government has complete control and administration of all education. In Argentina, while primary education is delegated to the provinces, the national government maintains many primary schools of its own, especially in the poorer provinces, and it administers all education in the capital. Almost all secondary and higher education is conducted by the national government in Argentina; every university professor is appointed by the President of the Republic - this situation is also found in Chile and Uruguay. Thus, education is closely controlled by the national government in these nations; local influence in school policy and management is very slight.

The national governments of all three nations have supported public and private education from an early date. They have spent increasingly larger shares of their budgets on education. Argentina and Chile have recently been spending approximately equal proportions of their national wealth for schools; the proportion spent by Uruguay has been about one-half as great as that of Chile.

The adequacy of the schools in all three countries can be judged by statistics concerning school enrollments. In recent years, Chile has made great strides in primary education, but Argentina has always led in the percentage of total population enrolled in primary schools; Argentina also leads in the percentage of population enrolled in higher schools. All three nations are far behind the United States in the percentage of the total

population enrolled in schools. Higher education in these nations is strictly professional in nature.

There is an alarming degree of elimination from the primary schools in all of these nations, due to the short period of instruction offered by many of the schools and to poverty. However, elimination of students from secondary schools, attended principally by children of rich families, is also very great.

In appraising education in Latin America, Dr. Ernesto Nelson, one of the leading educators in Argentina at the present time, recently expressed the belief that the great amount of elimination of students from school was a deliberate policy of the state and the educational authorities, aimed at maintaining the privileges of the wealthy social groups.¹ It must be admitted that the unusually large numbers of students who do not receive more than three or four years of schooling, and who are eliminated from school through failures in studies or other reasons, represent a grave defect in education in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay.

A recent publication² states that about thirty per cent of the children of school age in Argentina and Chile lack educational opportunities, and that 600,000 out of 2,600,000 children of school age in Argentina were not receiving any instruction in 1940.³ It also states that only a little more than half of the children of school age in Uruguay received any schooling in 1940.⁴

¹Ernesto Nelson, "A Problem for the Americas" (translated by Clarabel H. Wait), pp. 4-8. Points of View, No. 5, August, 1942. Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. (mimeographed).

²Francisco S. Céspedes, "Educational Trends in Latin America," No. 3, July, 1942, p. 3. Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. (mimeographed).

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid., p. 4.

In recent years, measures have been taken in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay to overcome the handicaps of inadequate school buildings and insufficient equipment. In Uruguay, for example, the educational authorities in 1939 began a campaign to inform the public of the pressing needs of the primary schools, with the result that, in 1940, the national congress enacted legislation providing for the construction of many new schools and the employment of six hundred additional teachers.¹

These nations have taken steps to meet the changing social and economic conditions by the establishment of special schools. They have created schools for the blind, deaf, and other physically handicapped children; and they have set up schools for gifted children and others for retarded children. Home schools (Escuelas Hogares) have been established in some rural districts for children having to travel long distances to reach school; the students live in these schools for several weeks at a time, thereby eliminating transportation difficulties.² Open air schools have been established for weak and diseased pupils. Free lunches and clothing have been provided for needy pupils in these countries on an increasingly large scale in recent years. Such practices will do much to overcome the bad effects of poverty among the masses. While many children in these nations lack the opportunity of receiving an education, the future promises an improvement in this situation, judging from the progress made during recent years.

Social and political cooperation with these nations can

¹Ibid., pp. 13 f.

²Ibid., pp. 14 f.

be improved by an understanding of their educational and cultural development. In general, the Latin American is less practical and more sentimental than the North American, and he usually conducts his affairs in a leisurely manner. He prefers speculation and discussion rather than manual and physical activities; the educational philosophy of Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay illustrates these characteristics.

At the present time, the effect of foreign nations on the cultural and educational development of these nations is especially important. It should be borne in mind that the racial make-up of the population in Argentina and Uruguay is very strongly Italian and Spanish, and that the Catholic religion is practically universal in these nations. These nations have considered France as their intellectual and social model, and their wealthy people have been accustomed to spending much of their leisure in Paris and other cities in the Latin nations of Europe; the education of the common people has been influenced by the examples of the United States, principally, and by other nations, to lesser extents. Chile has a considerable Indian element in its social structure, with a rather large number of Anglo-Saxons and comparatively few people of Latin ancestry; the Spanish influence and culture has persisted, making it a Catholic nation also. Chile has been influenced by French ideals and institutions, like Argentina and Uruguay; and it has also been rather strongly affected by German influence which dominated the educational system from 1880 to about 1905.

These three nations have been more closely related to Europe than to the United States in the past; reciprocal cooperation and lasting friendship with them requires time and a careful consideration of their history and cultural development.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Araujo, Orestes. Historia de la Escuela Uruguaya. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1911. Pp. xv + 703.
- Cháneton, Abel. La Instrucción Primaria en la Epoca Colonial. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos del Consejo Nacional de Educación, 1936. Pp. 412.
- Donoso, Ricardo. Recopilación de Leyes, Reglamentos, y Decretos Relativos a los Servicios de la Enseñanza Pública. Santiago de Chile: Ministerio de Educación Pública, Imprenta de la Dirección General de Prisiones, 1937. Pp. xxxiv + 782.
- Evans, Henry Clay. Chile and Its Relations with the United States. Durham: Duke University Press, 1927. Pp. x + 243.
- Galdames, Luis. A History of Chile. Translated and edited by Isaac Joslin Cox. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1941. Pp. xii + 565.
- Garretón, Adolfo. La Instrucción Primaria Durante la Dominación Española en el Territorio que Forma Actualmente la República Argentina. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos del Consejo Nacional de Educación, 1939. Pp. 299.
- Gonzalez M., Guillermo. Memoria Historia de la Educación Pública 1810-1900. Santiago de Chile: Meza Hnos., 1913. Pp. 167.
- Labarca-Hubertson, Amanda. Historia de la Enseñanza en Chile. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Universitaria, 1939. Pp. xv-399.
- Lanning, John Tate. Academic Culture in the Spanish Colonies. New York: Oxford University Press, 1940. Pp. ix + 149.
- Levene, Ricardo. Lecciones de Historia Argentina. Buenos Aires: J. Lajouane y Cia., 1930. Pp. xxvi + 456.
- Levillier, Robert. Les Origines Argentines. Paris: Charpentier et Fasquelle, 1912. Pp. xii + 327.
- Macdonald, Austin F. The Government of the Argentine Republic. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1942. Pp. xii + 476.
- Medina, José Toribio. La Instrucción Pública en Chile. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Elzeviriana, 1906. Pp. 492.
- Monroe, Paul. A Text-Book in the History of Education. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. xxiii + 772.

- Moya, Ismael. Historia de la Pedagogía Argentina. Buenos Aires: Peuser, 1937. Pp. 142.
- Peyret, Alexis. Une Visite aux Colonies de la République Argentine. Paris: P. Mouillot, 1889. Pp. ii + 372.
- Rippy, J. Fred, Martin, P. A., and Cos, I. J. Argentina, Brazil, and Chile since Independence. Edited by A. Curtis Wilgus. Washington: The George Washington University Press, 1935. Pp. ix + 481.
- Rippy, J. Fred. The Historical Evolution of Hispanic America. 2d ed. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1940. Pp. xvii + 582.
- Rivarola, Horacio C. Legislación Escolar y Ciencia de la Educación. Segunda edición. Buenos Aires: Imprenta Lopez, 1936. Pp. xv + 444.
- Sarmiento, Domingo F. Educación Popular. Buenos Aires: J. Roldán, 1915. Pp. vi + 456.
- Smith, Henry Lester, and Littell, Harold. Education in Latin America. New York: American Book Co., 1934. Pp. xiv + 431.
- Stewart, Watt, and Peterson, Harold F. Builders of Latin America. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942. Pp. xiii + 343.
- Vargas, Moises. Bosquejo de la Instrucción Pública en Chile. Santiago de Chile: Moneda Balcells y Cia., 1909. Pp. iv + 453.
- Vedia, Agustín de. Constitución Argentina. Buenos Aires: Imprenta y Casa Editora de Coni Hermanos, 1907. Pp. 587.
- Williams, Mary W. The People and Politics of Latin America. New edition. Chicago: Ginn & Co., 1938. Pp. xi + 888.
- Zubiaur, J. B. Sinopsis de la Educación en la República Argentina. Buenos Aires: Félix Lajouane, 1901. Pp. 103.

Government Publications

- Recopilación de Leyes de los Reynos de las Indias. Tomo I. Madrid: Viuda de D. Joaquín Ibarra, 1791.

Argentina:

- República Argentina. Antecedentes, Congreso Constituyente de 1853. Buenos Aires: Compañía Sud-Americana de Billetes de Banco, 1898.
- República Argentina. Antecedentes sobre Enseñanza Secundaria y Normal. Buenos Aires: Taller Tipográfico de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1903.
- República Argentina. Anuario Estadístico, 1914. Buenos Aires: Dirección General de Estadístico de la Nación, Talleres Gráficos de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1915.

- República Argentina. Arbitration upon a Part of the National Territory of Misiones Disputed by the United States of Brazil - Argentine Evidence. Vol. I. New York: S. Figueroa, 1893.
- República Argentina. Censo General de Educación Levantado el 23 de Mayo de 1909. (Alberto B. Martinez.) 3 Vols. Buenos Aires: Talleres de Publicación de la Oficina Meteorologica Argentina, 1910.
- República Argentina. Cincuentenario de la Ley 1420. Tomo I. Buenos Aires: Consejo Nacional de Educación, 1934.
- República Argentina. Congreso Nacional, Diario de Sesiones de la Cámara de Senadores, Año 1918. Buenos Aires: 1919.
- República Argentina. Debates Parlamentarios sobre Instrucción Pública. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1904.
- República Argentina. Documentos para la Historia Argentina. Tomo XVIII. Buenos Aires: Talleres S. A. Casa Jacobo Peuser, Ltda., 1924.
- República Argentina. Extracto Estadístico de la República Argentina, 1915. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1916.
- República Argentina. Informe - Educación Común en la Capital, Provincias, y Territorios Nacionales, Año 1892. Tomo I. Buenos Aires: Compania Sud-Americana de Billetes de Banco, 1893.
- República Argentina. Los Mensajes - Historia del Desenvolvimiento de la Nación Argentina, 1810-1910. 6 Vols. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de la Compania General de Fosforos, 1910.
- República Argentina. Memoria Presentada al Congreso Nacional de 1874. Buenos Aires: Imprenta Lit. y Fund. de Tipos de la Sociedad Anonima, 1874.
- República Argentina. Memoria del Consejo Nacional de Educación - Informe sobre el Estado de la Educación Común Durante el Año 1888. Tomo I. Buenos Aires: Talleres de la Tribuna Nacional, 1888.
- República Argentina. Memoria Presentada al Honorable Congreso de la Nación. Años 1921-1922. Tomo II. Buenos Aires: Talleres Gráficos de L. J. Rosso y Cia., 1922.
- República Argentina. Registro Nacional de la República Argentina, que Comprende los Documentos Expedidos desde 1810 hasta 1890. Vol. VI. Buenos Aires: Taller Tipográfico de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1884.
- República Argentina. Report upon the State of Education in the Argentine Republic. La Plata: Talleres de Publicaciones del Museo, 1893.

Chile:

- República de Chile. Anuario Estadístico, 1910; Sinopsis Estadística, 1924-27; Estadístico Anual de Justicia, Administración, y Educación, 1932, 1935, 1938. Santiago de Chile, Dirección General de Estadística.
- República de Chile. Discurso de su Excelencia el Presidente de la República, 1872. Santiago de Chile: 1872.
- República de Chile. Discurso de su Excelencia el Presidente de la República, 1895. Santiago de Chile: 1895.
- República de Chile. Documentos Parlamentarios, Discursos de Apertura en las Sesiones del Congreso. Vol. II. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Ferrocarril, 1858.
- República de Chile. Memoria del Ministerio de Instrucción Pública, 1907. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Nacional, 1907.
- República de Chile. Memoria del Ministerio de Instrucción Pública, 1911. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Nacional, 1911.
- República de Chile. Recopilación de Leyes i Reglamentos Relativos a los Servicios de Instrucción Superior, Secundaria, i Special, 1912. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Universitaria, 1912.
- República de Chile. Boletín Estadístico de las Escuelas Normales i Primarias de la República. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Universitaria, 1910.
- República de Chile. Sesiones de los Cuerpos Legislativos de la República de Chile. Tomo I. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Cervantes, 1887.
- Universidad de Chile. Recopilación de Leyes, Reglamentos, y Decretos Relativos a los Servicios de la Enseñanza Superior. Santiago de Chile: Talleres de Imprenta de la Dirección General de Prisiones, 1937.

Uruguay:

- República Oriental del Uruguay. Anales de Instrucción Primaria, XI, (1913); XXXII, (1932); Epoca 2, IV (1941). Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Anuario Estadístico de la República Oriental del Uruguay, Tomo XLI, 1936. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1936.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Catálogo del Material Escolar Enviado a la Exposición Anexa al Congreso Internacional de Higiene Escolar. Montevideo: Imprenta Artística, 1911.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Constitución de la República Oriental del Uruguay. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos de los Institutos Penales, 1936.

- República Oriental del Uruguay. Legislación Escolar de la República Oriental del Uruguay. Montevideo: Imprenta de "La Correspondencia", 1889.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Memoria Correspondiente a los Años 1890 y 1891 Presentada a la Dirección General de Instrucción Pública. Montevideo: Imprenta "La Nación", 1892.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente al Año 1908. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos A. Barreiro y Ramos, 1910.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente a los Años 1909 y 1910. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos A. Barreiro y Ramos, 1910.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente a los Años 1911-14. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos A. Barreiro y Ramos, 1916.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Memoria del Ministerio de Instrucción Pública Correspondiente a los Años 1913-15. Montevideo: Talleres Gráficos A. Barreiro y Ramos, 1915.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente al Año 1925. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1926.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Memoria de Instrucción Primaria Correspondiente al Año 1928 Presentada al Consejo Nacional de Enseñanza. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1929.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Memoria sobre el Estado de la Enseñanza Primaria y Normal en el Uruguay Correspondiente al Período 1938-40. Montevideo: Imprenta Nacional, 1941.
- República Oriental del Uruguay. Ministerio de Fomento - Instrucción Primaria Pública, Mensaje Proyecto de Ley sobre Reformas a la Ley Vigente y Reorganización de la Enseñanza. Montevideo: Imprenta "La Nación", 1900.

Reference Works

- Annuaire International de l'Education et de l'Enseignement; 1933, 1939. Geneva: Bureau International d'Education.
- Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. 1925, 1930, 1940, 1942. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Encyclopaedia Britannica, 14th Edition. Vol. II.
- Moody's Manual of Investments, Government Securities. 1926, 1931. New York: Moody's Investors Service.
- The Statesman's Yearbook. All editions from 1890 to 1941. London: The Macmillan Co.

Reports

- Mackintosh, Helen K. Elementary Education. United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1940, No. 4, Part 1. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940. Pp. v + 31.
- Pan American Union. Constitution of the Republic of Chile. Law and Treaty Series, No. 3. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1926.
- La Unión Panamericana. La Educación Pública en el Uruguay. Educación, No. 51, Mayo de 1929. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1929. Pp. 11 + 10.
- Rowe, Leo Stanton. Educational Progress in the Argentine Republic and Chile. Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ending June 30, 1909, United States Bureau of Education, pp. 323-51. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1909.
- Salas, Irma Silva. The Socio-Economic Composition of the Secondary School Population of Chile. Doctor's Thesis, Columbia University, New York City. Santiago de Chile: Imprenta Lagunas i Quevedo, Ltda., 1930. Pp. xiii + 145.

Articles and Unpublished Material

- Céspedes, Francisco S. "Educational Trends in Latin America." No. 3, July, 1942. Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. Pp. 21 (mimeographed).
- Hall, Robert King. "The Secondary School in Argentina." Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1936. Pp. 94.
- Nelson, Ernesto. "A Problem for the Americas." (Translated by Clarabel H. Wait.) Points of View, No. 5, August, 1942. Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. Pp. 8 (mimeographed).

